OUR CITY-NEW YORK

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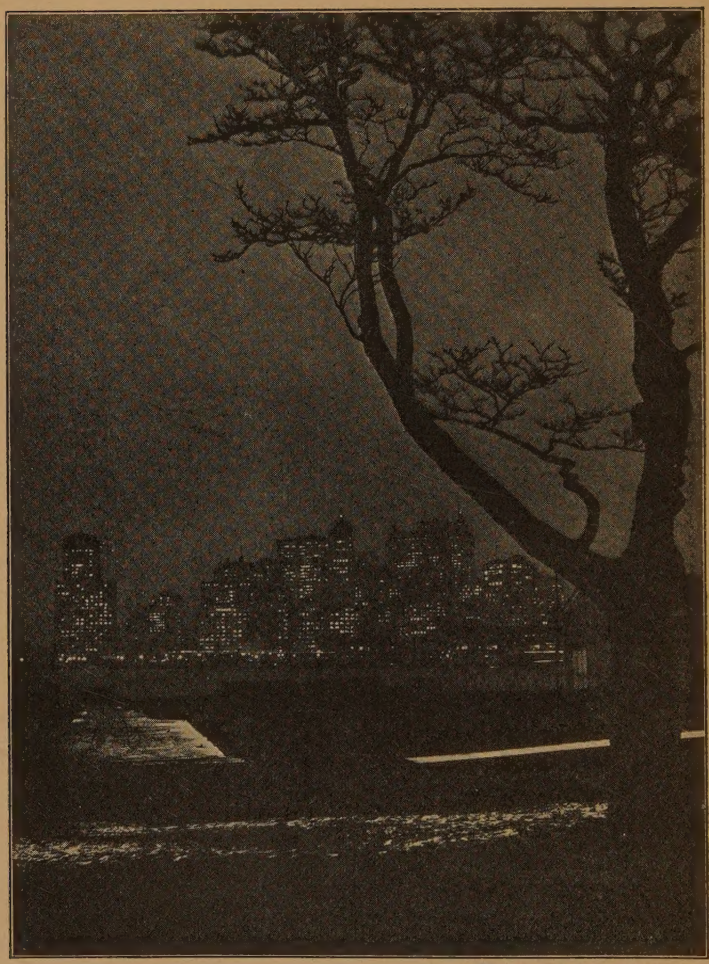

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LOWER MANHATTAN WITH ITS TEN MILLION EYES AS SEEN IN THE DECEMBER DUSK FROM GOVERNOR'S ISLAND.

OUR CITY—NEW YORK

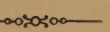
A BOOK ON CITY GOVERNMENT

BY

THE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS OF NEW YORK CITY

UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF

FRANK A. REXFORD



ALLYN AND BACON

BOSTON NEW YORK CHICAGO

ATLANTA SAN FRANCISCO

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R.A.O.

But you and I and all of us
are that which makes the state.

WILLIAM MCANDREW

FOREWORD

HUNDREDS of high school students took part in the preparation of OUR CITY — NEW YORK. The pupil judged to have done the best work on the book in each of nineteen schools, each representing what developed into a chapter, received the Co-operation-in-Government medal. The names of those who received the medal in connection with the book are as follows:

Arthur R. Bowles, Manual Training High School; Florence Casey, Bushwick High School; A. Allan Christie, Stuyvesant High School; Muriel Drummond, Newtown High School; Eva Kasindorf, Wadleigh High School; Jack Koss, Commercial High School; Eleanor Mauk, Washington Irving High School; Fred Milana, Richmond Hill High School; Rosamunda Nonnenmacher, Bryant High School; James O'Connell, Flushing High School; Laura Oslieb, Eastern District High School; Arthur Paletta, High School of Commerce; Max J. Rubin, Morris High School; Ruth Seife, Julia Richman High School; Ida Shetnick, Theodore Roosevelt High School; Henrietta Shulter, Erasmus Hall High School; Arthur

G. Syran, DeWitt Clinton High School; Sarah Wund, Evander Childs High School; Minnie Wurzel, Girls Commercial High School.

The following pupils received the medal for other types of distinguished service: Ruth Bondy, Jamaica High School; John Case, George Washington High School; Irving Connors, Brooklyn Technical High School; Bernard Drechsler, New Utrecht High School; Bella Goldfarb, Bay Ridge High School; Benjamin Gordon, Haaren High School; Sylvia Lerner, Girls High School; William F. Monaco, Bryant High School; Harry Roth, Textile High School; Harold S. Seguine, Curtis High School; Philip Schiff, Boys High School.

Space does not permit naming separately the great number of departments, bureaus, and individuals that have rendered valuable assistance to the study of civics in the high schools of the City of New York. If a list were prepared which included all the city department heads and their helpers, all the civic organizations, and all the parents who have taken active interest in the work, a book would be filled, but the list would be inadequate. Since it is impossible to adopt such a procedure, the wonderful spirit of helpfulness and coöperation that has been manifested is hereby gratefully acknowledged.

Special mention should be made of the great service that has been rendered by the heads of city departments who have met in conference with the civics teachers and made them familiar with the functions of each department and bureau.

The Board of Education and the Board of Superintendents have consistently encouraged the teaching of civics as it is being carried on, and much of the coöperation by other departments of government has been possible through their aid.

Recognition must here be given to the thousands of boys and girls who have already assumed the duties of citizenship with the understanding that, in a few short years, the full responsibility for America and Her destiny will be theirs.

This opportunity is taken to express appreciation to the

teachers who, not only in the class room during school hours, but outside of the class room and throughout the city at all hours, continually give unstintingly of their time, energy, and thought in putting American ideals into practice and broadcasting an influence that cannot be measured during this generation.

F. A. R.

BOARD OF EDUCATION
THE CITY OF NEW YORK

July 18, 1923

Dr. William L. Ettinger,
Superintendent of Schools,
City of New York.

Dear Sir: —

Four years ago, the subject of civics became a requirement in the first year of all the high schools of the State of New York. At that time but few trained civics teachers were available. Those few, however, were firm in their belief that the study should be made a vital part of the everyday life of the young citizens of the City of New York.

It was evident that, not only must teachers be secured at once, but if these new teachers were to appreciate and project the vision of those who believed in functional civics; if they were to carry into our class rooms the spirit of individual responsibility and personal participation, extensive outlines on the new civic idea must be prepared for them.

Accordingly, a committee was appointed which prepared a syllabus which has been in use up to the present time. More than this, certain superintendents and teachers wrote and published magazine articles which were most inclusive and illuminating.

Then too, the heads of city departments coöperated by supplying the public libraries and the school libraries with complete sets of reports and other literature and by meeting with the teachers in conference where they explained the routine of their jobs.

All this was by way of preparing teachers to teach boys and girls how our government functions and the part that they as

citizens should take if the aims of Republican Government were to be realized.

Text-books, as such, have been and are taboo. The city is our text-book. Libraries, city bureaus and departments, current text-books, newspapers, and magazines are expressly urged, however, for reference study in building up and emphasizing the American Idea of participation in government.

Early in the spring of 1923, the Superintendent of Schools ordered a survey of the work being done in the public schools of the City of New York. It was appreciated that the usual type of survey would be conducted by means of questionnaires and investigations and that conclusions would be reached by way of tabulations and statistics mainly. It was thought that this type of survey was not adapted to the work being done in civics and that such conclusions as might be arrived at would not be a true measure of the work in government teaching.

We reasoned that if our ideal of individual responsibility, coöperation, and participation in government had taken root, it would be possible to obtain from the children themselves the results of our teaching. With this thought in mind the students of some of the representative high schools of the city were asked to write down for us their ideas of various phases of our city government as term themes. Each of the high schools represented chose a theme and, through the coöperation of the civics and English departments of the schools, outlined and wrote it.

While no criticisms are offered, no conclusions are drawn, and no comparisons are attempted, the themes written by the high school boys and girls — the chapters of Our City — New York — are respectfully submitted for your consideration.

Respectfully yours,

Frank A. Rexford

Assigned to the Supervision of Civics

Approved

Clarence E. Meleney

Associate Superintendent in

Charge of High Schools

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THE STATUE OF LIBERTY.

OUR CITY—NEW YORK

CHAPTER I

NEW YORK CITY'S WATER SUPPLY

BY

Manual Training High School

Introductio

"Thirty Die in Mexico City Street Riots," announced the headlines of the daily newspapers, on December 1, 1922. "Machine Gun Sweeps Crowds That Attack City Hall When Water Supply Is Cut Off for a Week." An accident had occurred on the aqueduct of the Mexico City water supply. Water was flowing for only an hour a day, and even then in scant quantities. The people had become crazed by thirst and had attacked the mayor's palace.

What would happen if the water supply of New York City should suddenly be cut off? We should not expect riots, of course, but there would be suffering. Six million people would be left without water to drink or to wash in; the hundreds of factories and power plants would be forced to stop work because of lack of water for generating steam; the street cars, subways, elevators, and all other electrical conveyances, besides the electric lights, telephones, and telegraphs would be useless; and finally the city would be at the mercy of fire. If the usual number of fires broke out daily they would soon spread unhindered throughout the city while great fire-fighting forces would be helpless. Many lives and much property would be destroyed.

What do *you* know about the water supply? Do you appreciate its importance? Once an old Indian warrior visited New

York and was shown all the sights of the city. When leaving, he was asked what he thought was the most wonderful thing he had seen. In reply he walked to the corner of the room, turned a faucet, and said, "Water-heap-much-good." How many of us would have thought of the water supply? Yet, when we do think of it, common sense shows us that our water supply *is* the most wonderful thing in the city.

Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

AËRATION PLANT OF ASHOKAN DAM.

Where the water is aërated to make it "heap-much-good."

portance d Uses

You can readily see the importance of water by the large quantity used daily. The people of New York are now consuming about 732,000,000 gallons a day or about 120 gallons per capita. In Philadelphia the average daily consumption of water for 1921 was 163 gallons per capita, and in Boston for the same period it was 112 gallons; while Chicago, taking its supply from Lake Michigan, used 276 gallons per capita. Of course this does not mean that each person in all these cities used the mentioned quantity of water each day. On the con-

trary, only a fraction of the water is consumed for personal uses. Large quantities are used in the home for cooking and cleaning. The city departments also use it: the Fire Department for fighting fires; the Street Cleaning Department for washing the streets and disposing of the city's wastes; the Health Department in several public baths.

Sources and Former Supply (Manhattan).

When Manhattan was first founded, the Dutch inhabitants dug a well for the public water supply. As the population increased, more and more wells were dug until the community decided that, owing to the pollution caused by the filth from many houses, which was finding its way into wells, it was necessary to get water from a source outside the city. This decision came in 1832 when the city suffered from an epidemic of cholera. Previous to this time a water company under the leadership of Aaron Burr had laid wooden pipes under the streets and delivered 700,000 gallons of water a day to the 60,000 inhabitants.

In 1832 a commission with De Witt Clinton as its chairman was appointed by the City Council to find a source of water and to submit plans for conveying the water to the city. This commission decided on bringing to the city the water from the Croton River in Westchester and Putnam counties. As this river was 38 miles from the city, the plan was bitterly opposed. But in 1834, the state empowered a commission of five men to construct the necessary reservoirs and aqueduct.

The actual construction work did not begin, however, until 1837, because the commission met with many obstacles. Farmers refused to sell land for the right of way because they thought the city was robbing them of their water and depreciating the value of their property. The construction of the Croton System was a gigantic engineering undertaking, for in those days they had neither the machinery that we have today or our present knowledge of physiography. Many problems of engineering were met that had not been met before. The solution of these problems necessarily lessened the speed of the work. Yet it was completed in five years.

The water was brought to the city by a 32-mile aqueduct, passing over the Harlem River on High Bridge. It ended at the Murray Hill distributing reservoir on the site of the present Public Library at Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue. Later another reservoir was built within the area that is now Central Park, between Seventy-ninth and Eighty-sixth streets.

Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

AIRPLANE VIEW OF KENSICO RESERVOIR.

Showing a typical water-shed with its many inlets and brooks. Note also the beautiful dam and the park below.

The entire system was capable of supplying 80,000,000 gallons daily.

Severe droughts, occurring in 1880 and 1881, brought to light the inadequacy of the water supply and a Board of Aqueduct Commissioners was authorized by special legislation in 1883. Two years later construction was begun on what is now known as the New Croton System. A new aqueduct with a capacity of 300,000,000 gallons daily was laid to the Jerome Park Reser-

voir from the old Croton Dam. From Jerome Park the water was conducted to Central Park Reservoir which had been extended to Ninety-sixth Street, passing under the Harlem. Old Croton Lake was enlarged by the construction of the New Croton Dam, and by the addition of the Cross River Lakes. The new system was first put into operation in 1891 but it was not completed until 1910. At present the Croton System has a storage of 104,000,000,000 gallons and a daily supply of 336,000,000 gallons.

Bronx

The Borough of the Bronx was supplied with Croton water when it was a part of old New York City. In addition to this, the Williamsbridge section was supplied by the Bronx and Byram rivers. The waters of these rivers, which are located in Westchester County and which were collected in the former Kensico Lake, supplied 18,000,000 gallons daily, being distributed through the Williamsbridge Reservoir.

Brooklyn

The old city of Brooklyn did not establish a public water system until 1859, when the population numbered 300,000. Before that time the people had obtained water from private wells and cisterns. Brooklyn got its first public supply when it constructed a brick conduit out to Hempstead Valley, Long Island, and pumped water from several wells and ponds. Later a steel pipe line was built which extended to the Massapequa Pumping Station near the Suffolk County Line. The area within which the water is collected covers 200 square miles and extends from Gravesend to the Suffolk County Line, and from one-half mile north of the southern shore line to a short distance below the ground surface divide or the backbone of Long Island.

The water from this system is obtained from the stream of underground water which seeps through the sand and clay on its way to the ocean on the south. The water from this stream seeps into the wells that are driven in its path. There are about 975 such wells, varying in depth from fifty to several hundred feet. Besides the wells there are two infiltration gal-

leries. These are two lines of porous clay pipes, with a total length of about six miles each, laid from ten to fifteen feet below the water table. The joints of the pipes are left unsealed and the water filters into them. The water collected by means of this system is naturally filtered as it passes through the sand and is very pure. The total dependable yield from this system is 150,000,000 gallons daily.

The great objection to the Long Island System is the fact that the water has to be pumped three, four, or five times before it reaches the distributing stations in the city. The pump-

Courtesy of Board of Water Supply, City of New York.

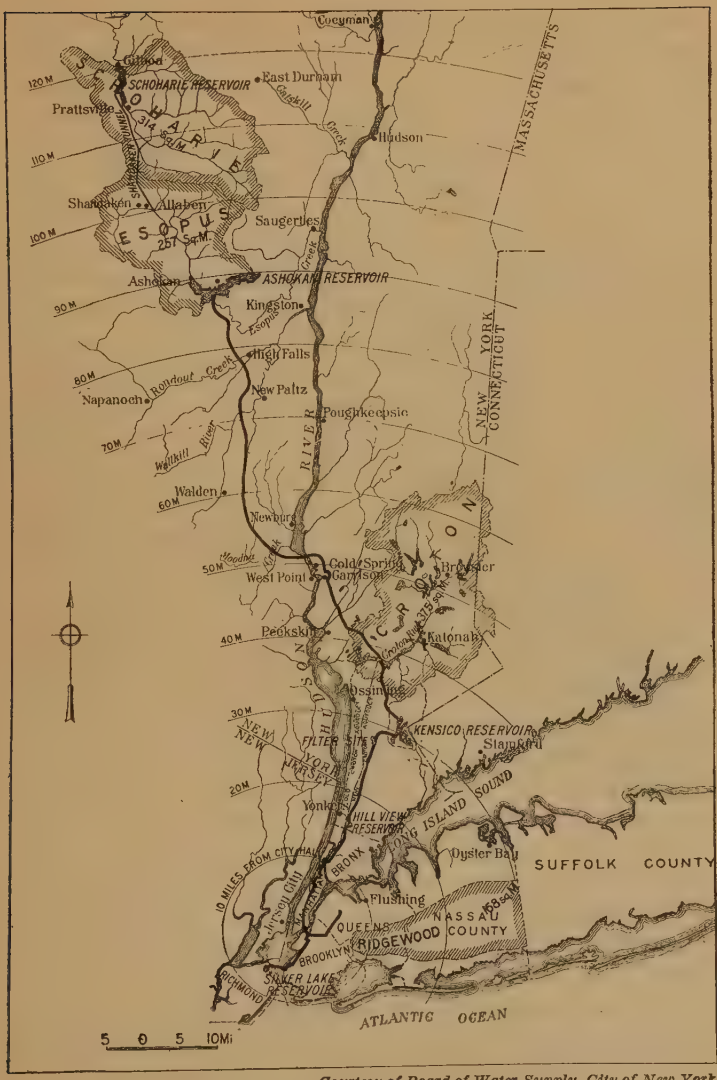
LAYING THE AQUEDUCT ACROSS THE NARROWS TO STATEN ISLAND.

ing is a very costly process because so much coal is used and so many skilled men must be employed to run the machinery. There are 32 pumping stations in the system.

Besides the public supply some sections of Brooklyn were supplied by private companies. The city has absorbed all these except the Flatbush Company, whose franchise did not expire until 1923.

ueens and ichmond

Queens and Richmond were formerly supplied by wells and streams, or served by private companies. Long Island City maintained several very small pumping stations and furnished water to only a small portion of Queens. A few sections of that borough were supplied by the Brooklyn System. The



Courtesy of Board of Water Supply, City of New York.

CATSKILL WATERSHEDS AND AQUEDUCT.

most important companies at present in Queens are the Jamaica and Woodhaven Companies. These, together with the Flatbush Company of Brooklyn, supply about 47 m. g. d. (million gallons daily).

The principal objection to private companies is that they do not, except in a few rare instances, supply water so cheaply as the city. Furthermore they do not make adequate provisions for supplying water for fire-fighting.

atskill ystem

Serious shortages of water occurred in Brooklyn during the years 1885–1887. The water system was being overworked and the water delivered was of inferior quality. Several civic organizations took the matter up and started a campaign in March, 1897. The start of the movement is credited to a resolution adopted by the Merchants' Association of Brooklyn. This resolution contained four main suggestions: That all plans for water should contemplate a greater New York; that to finance the project the State Constitution must be amended to separate the water debt from the constitutional debt limit; that the project should be administered by a commission in charge of the work from start to finish; and that the city's needs for a period of fifty years should be considered.

When New York was consolidated in 1898 its population was 3,250,000 and was steadily increasing. In 1904, when the population was more than 4,000,000, the water problem began to grow acute. The water works in Manhattan as well as in Brooklyn were being overworked.

After much unsuccessful legislation a bill was finally passed by the legislature and became a law in 1905. An important preliminary step had been taken, however, in 1904, when the water debt was removed from the municipal debt limit by an amendment to the State Constitution.

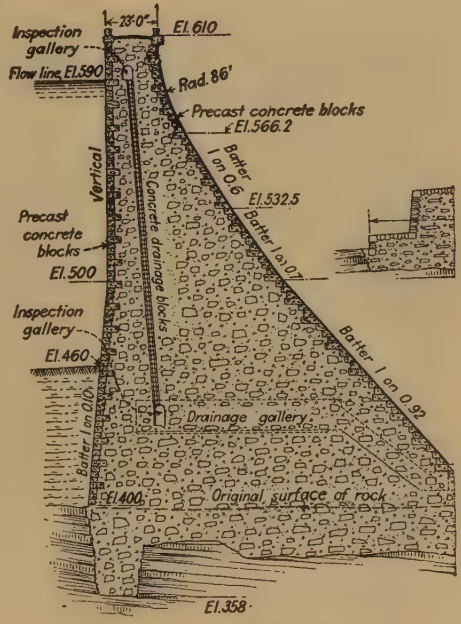
Under the new law a commission of three men was required, appointable by the mayor and removable only "for incompetency or misconduct shown after a hearing, upon due notice, upon stated charges. . . ." This is an important point to

remember, because by this clause the administration and general policy of the work were assured against any changes that might have caused the loss of much time. Furthermore, it took the commission, known as the Board of Water Supply, out of the way of any political influences.

All land for the watersheds and aqueduct was secured by direct purchases or through condemnation proceedings, as provided by the statutes of the State in which the Corporation Counsel represented the City.

The work on the Catskill System was done under the eight-hour law. The forces of the contractors ranged as high as 17,243 men. These were only men directly connected with the work. If we were to count the men employed in the mines and factories that produced the materials for the work, we should have a total of about 25,000 men. Many of the men who were employed on the various reservoirs lived with their families in camps built by the city. These camps were laid

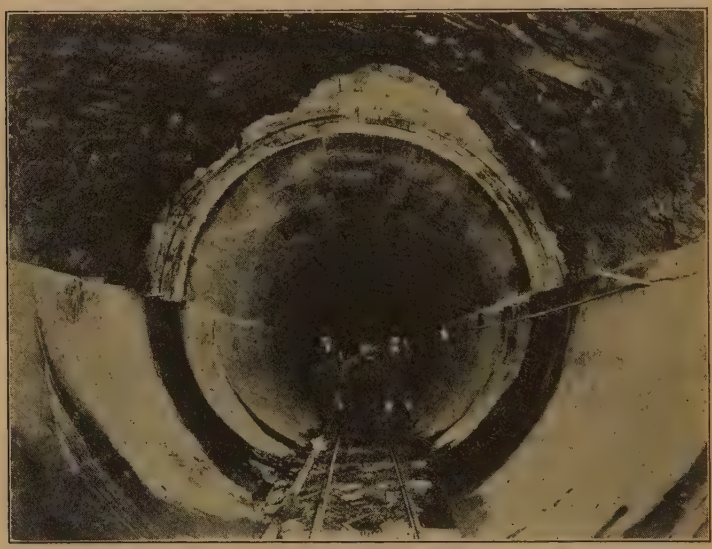
Contraction-joints in Olive Bridge Dam are similar to those in Kensico Dam, except that no copper strips were used.



Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

CROSS-SECTION OF OLIVE BRIDGE DAM SHOWING CONSTRUCTION.

out in streets and provided with electricity, telephones, sewage, and in fact with all the comforts and conveniences of home. Yet when the work was completed, these camps were removed in such a way that not a trace of them can be found. Public schools were provided in the day for the children and in the evening for the adults. English was taught to every one, and



Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

CROSS-SECTION OF SHANDAKEN TUNNEL.

Showing the cement lining. Note the great height of the tunnel in contrast with the men.

through the medium of a common language all misunderstanding was removed. We can rightly feel proud of the way the men were treated.

The Catskill System consists of the Ashokan and the Schoharie Reservoirs in the Catskill Mountains, Kensico Reservoir near White Plains, Hill View Reservoir in Yonkers, Silver Lake Terminus Reservoir on Staten Island, and the aqueduct,

which is 120 miles long. The estimated cost of the system is $127,000,000.

The Ashokan Reservoir was made by constructing the Olive Bridge Dam across the Esopus Creek and some smaller dams across little streams and gaps between the hills that form the natural sides of the lake. The water in the lake covers 8,180 acres of land and the entire protected area is 15,222 acres. This is about twenty-four square miles or an area bounded on four sides by 240 of our city streets. Forty miles of road and ten bridges were constructed around the edge of the reservoir.

Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

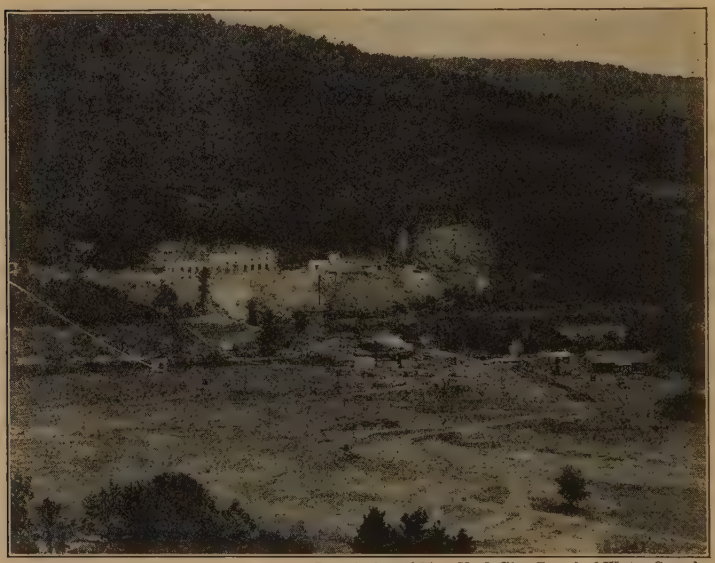
COMPLETED PORTION OF SHANDAKEN TUNNEL.

The Schoharie Reservoir is separated from Ashokan by the very high Shandaken Mountains. In order to bring the water from Schoharie to Ashokan, a tunnel eighteen miles long is being bored through the mountains; it is to be completed in 1924.

Esopus Creek originally ran out of the mountains towards the southeast, but Schoharie Creek flowed north and west. Therefore, in order to turn its waters into the Shandaken Tunnel, the Gilboa Dam was constructed at the former village of Gilboa. The reservoir covers 1,170 acres when full, and its capacity is estimated at 22,000,000,000 gallons.

Kensico Reservoir acts as a reserve supply so that, in case the aqueduct above it is cut off for any reason, it can supply the city. Its capacity is rated at 30,000,000,000 gallons. In case of emergency it can supply the city with 400 m. g. d. for about seventy days.

This reservoir was formed by building the huge Kensico Dam at Valhalla near the site of the old Kensico Dam, which was



Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

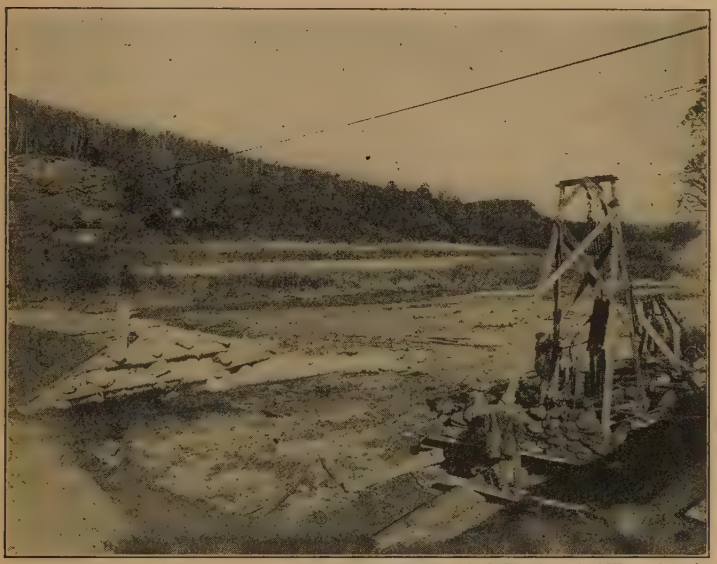
INTAKE WORKS TO SHANDAKEN TUNNEL.

part of the Croton System. The top of this dam is almost a quarter of a mile long and a roadway, about two thirds the width of one of our common city streets, runs along it.

Hill View Reservoir is an equalizing reservoir. Its duty is to keep a steady flow of water gliding into the city at a fixed pressure, for the city uses more water in the day time than the aqueduct carries, and at night it uses less than the aqueduct carries. Therefore the difference between the consumption in

the daytime and the night-time is stored in Hill View by night and drawn out by day.

From Ashokan Reservoir the water flows to Kensico through the aqueduct, which is seventeen feet high and seventeen feet six inches wide. It is large enough, therefore, to allow a railroad train to pass through it. It runs under the Hudson River in a tunnel driven through the granite rock 1,114 feet below sea



Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

GILBOA DAM UNDER CONSTRUCTION.

level. This is the deepest tunnel in the world. It extends from the Storm King Mountain over to Breakneck Mountain.

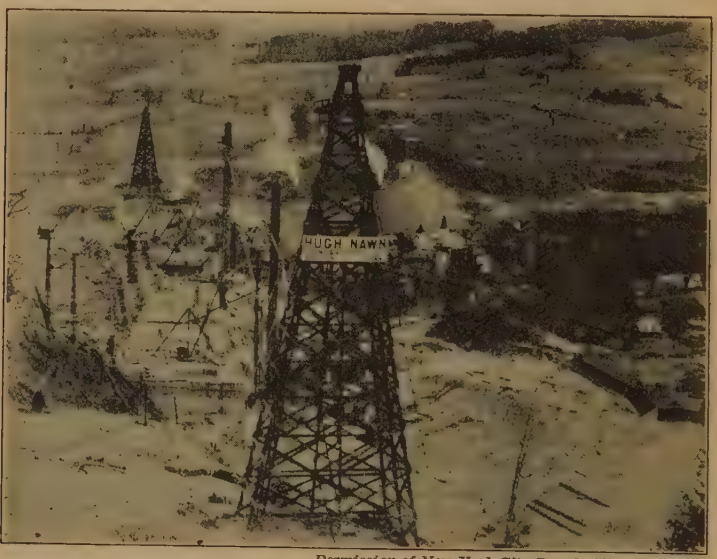
From Kensico to Hill View the aqueduct is enlarged by six inches. When it reaches the city it becomes known as the City Tunnel. It lies from 200 to 700 feet below the street level. The water is brought to Brooklyn by two shafts under the East River. These shafts are as deep as the Woolworth Building is high. One of the shafts continues through Brooklyn to Queens

and the other to Richmond after passing under the Narrows in a flexible steel siphon.

The aqueduct ends at Silver Lake Terminus whose capacity is 435,000,000 gallons.

Quantity and Quality

Catskill water is surface water collected from mountain streams in thinly populated areas and is exceptionally free from pollution. Because the surface rock in the Catskills is



Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

THE VILLAGE OF GILBOA.

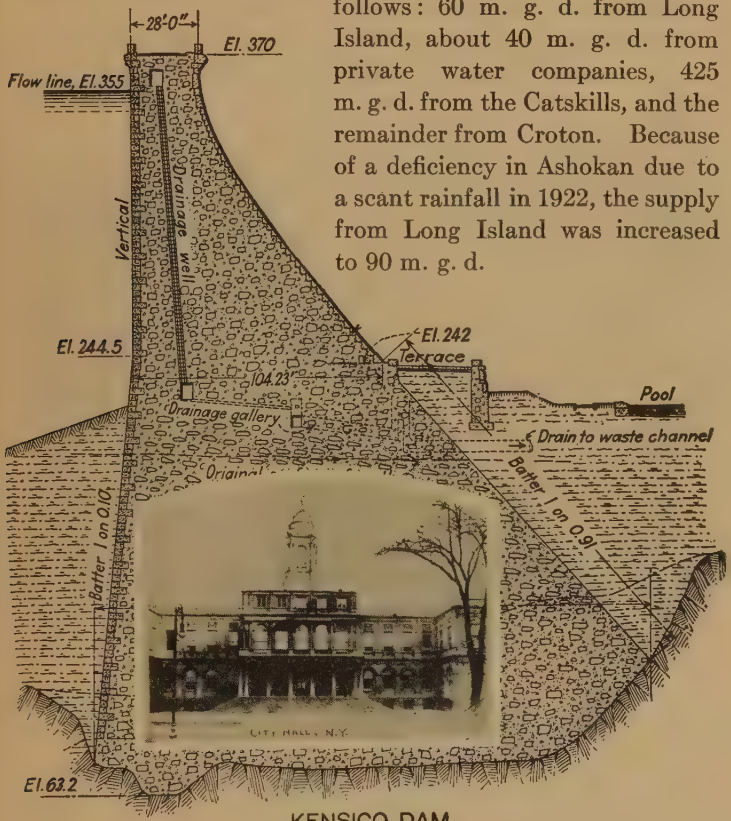
This village will be submerged when the dam is completed.

mostly shale and sandstone, the water is very sweet and soft. In this respect it is much better than the Long Island wells, whose water is rather hard, and its quality surpasses that of Croton water.

The water flows by gravity to the city. When it reaches Hill View it has a pressure that raises it 295 feet. And so it does not have to be pumped except in the cases of very high buildings. As the city is required to maintain only a certain pressure, lower

than that of the Catskill System, the pumping in these cases is done by the owners of the buildings.

The 772 m. g. d. supplied to the city comes to the system as follows: 60 m. g. d. from Long Island, about 40 m. g. d. from private water companies, 425 m. g. d. from the Catskills, and the remainder from Croton. Because of a deficiency in Ashokan due to a scant rainfall in 1922, the supply from Long Island was increased to 90 m. g. d.



KENSICO DAM
MAXIMUM SECTION
Permission of New York City Board of Water Supply.

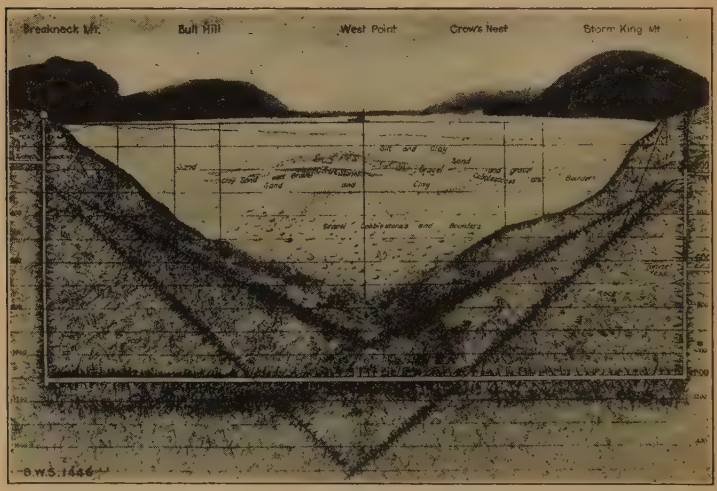
CROSS-SECTION OF KENSICO DAM SHOWING CONSTRUCTION.

Protecting the Water

The city takes great care to preserve the purity of the water supplied. Before the Catskill water starts on its journey it is aërated at Ashokan. Aëration is the process of throwing the

water about thirty feet into the air through small nozzles. In this way oxygen is mixed with the water and objectionable gases, which cause disagreeable tastes, are liberated. The water is again aërated at Kensico.

During the time when there are heavy rainstorms or a rapid run-off of water into the reservoirs, small particles of clay and earth are carried into the water. This clay is removed by the


Breakneck Mt.
Bull Hill
West Point
Crow's Nest
Storm King Mt
Silt and clay
Sand
Gravel
Clay
Sand and gravel
Boulders
Gravel, cobblestones and boulders
Sand and gravel
Clay
Sand
Gravel, cobblestones and boulders
Sand and gravel

Filtration is the process of allowing the water to seep through beds of sand to remove any foreign matter. In the Catskill system this is unnecessary because of the precipitation.

The water in the city tunnel is tested twice daily by samples taken at different points in the mains. The test is made at Mount Prospect Laboratories in Brooklyn.

To prevent any possible pollution by population, an unpopulated margin from five to ten miles wide is maintained around the edge of the reservoirs. The city maintains a force of special police, on its watersheds, whose duty it is to keep people from throwing refuse into the reservoirs or committing any other such misdemeanors.

Maintenance

The water supply systems of the city are maintained by the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. You should not confuse this Department of the city with the Board of Water Supply, whose duty is the enlarging of the supply.

Waste

It is estimated that almost ten million gallons of water are wasted every day by leaky fixtures, holes in pipes, and carelessness in forgetting to turn off faucets. The present cost of water is $65.80 per million gallons. Therefore, the yearly cost to the city for wasted water must be about $250,000. Since the taxpayers pay this money, it is the duty of every citizen to prevent waste. If you notice a fire hydrant, or a water-main cover leaking, report it to the nearest office of the Water Supply bureau. Inspect the faucets in your home, and if they are leaky have them repaired at once.

Future

If the city continues to increase at its present rate, it will have to provide a greater water supply. To obtain this it will probably take the waters of the Catskill and Rondout creeks, which are near Schoharie and Ashokan respectively. After that there is the possibility of taking water from the Delaware River. To do this permission must be obtained from Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Other sources, either in the Adirondacks or in Connecticut, may be found; but these are at great distances and the necessary aqueducts would be very expensive.

The Borough of Queens is now being developed with tremendous strides. Before long it will demand more water. And so another aqueduct from Kensico to a terminus reservoir in the Little Neck Hills is now under consideration. It will have a connection with the Brooklyn main, thus making a loop connection to guard against the chance of an accident's shutting off the supply.

CHAPTER II

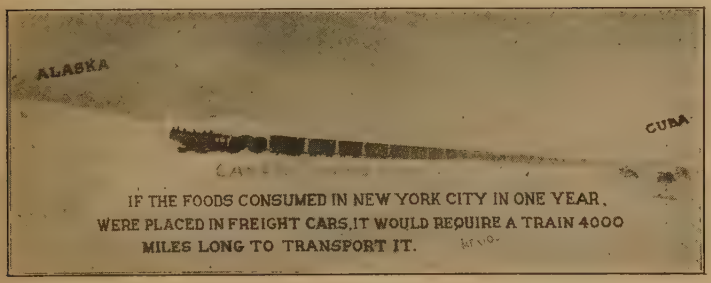
PROTECTING THE FOOD OF THE CITY

BY

Girls Commercial High School

Transportation

As we sat down to a picnic supper one evening last summer among the hills of Vermont, as far from New York as you could imagine yourself to be, a train whizzed by below us; a long train of tightly-shut black steel cars with tall white letters "REFRIGERATOR" on the side of each.


ALASKA
CUBA
IF THE FOODS CONSUMED IN NEW YORK CITY IN ONE YEAR,
WERE PLACED IN FREIGHT CARS, IT WOULD REQUIRE A TRAIN 4000
MILES LONG TO TRANSPORT IT.

"There goes some of your Vermont milk down to New York," I said to my sister.

"Oh no! Vermont milk goes down in the afternoon; that train comes from the border of Canada and rushes through without a stop, in time for the milk deliveries in New York in the morning."

You have no doubt read the story of Aladdin and his wonderful lamp, how he had only to rub it and, lo! a genie would appear with the choicest of foods. How you wish you were as lucky as he! How you envy him! Yet, though to a great extent

The Whole World Feeds New York

you do not realize it, you are living among many such marvelous lamps modernized to suit the present generation. Grain from the Middle West, fruit from Florida and California, live stock from Argentina and Texas, meat from Chicago, coffee from Brazil and Java, sea food from Cape Cod, onions from Bermuda, all are at your disposal, together with many other foods. They are shipped here by the modern genii of today: railroads, farm trucks, steamships, and refrigerator cars.

Even in case of a shortage of food, which is sometimes caused by strikes among railroad employees, strikes among food workers, floods, hail, disease among cattle, shipwrecks, and small crop yieldings, we are well provided for and can rely upon canned goods, smoked fish food, and cold storage warehouses.

But in the long run New York City is dependent upon its railroads to keep its citizens alive. Every meal we eat has been brought to us from many parts of the world and the people who furnished it are probably using something supplied by us. In this way the whole world is working for us and we in turn are working for every nation that buys the things we make and sell.

We Depend on Transportation

Harbor strikes have proved to us how utterly dependent we are on transportation. Every day nine railways and some of forty-five steamship lines are bringing necessities to our terminals. How is it possible for perishable food to travel so far? The introduction of refrigerators into cars and steamboats in summer and of heat in winter has made it possible to transport such perishable foods as lettuce from Texas or fruit from California. Federal control over railways through the Interstate Commerce Commission helps in securing low freight rates.

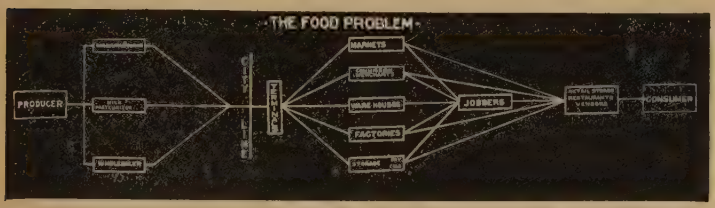
An Immense Problem

Besides having to feed our population of nearly 6,000,000, we must add enough for the many thousands of transients and commuters and for the steamships and trains that leave our city. Also, we must keep a surplus in the cold storage plants of the city, but in an emergency this surplus would last only a

short time. Even one day's interruption of the milk trains or trouble with the farmers or with the drivers of the milk wagons causes suffering.

Markets

At the many docks and piers and railway terminals, food supplies are brought in by jobbers who haul them across the city to the wholesale markets. Here they are purchased by grocers and other retail merchants who must now have them hauled to their stores in the outlying districts. The consumer purchases from them, but the cost of the wholesaler's profits and the expense added through handling and hauling are added to the cost of the food. Naturally such wholesale markets are



failing to meet our needs today. The nation, state, and city are working hand in hand to provide better methods.

Jobbers, Wholesalers, and Retailers

You may have heard your grocer say that he has been to market. Have you ever visited a wholesale market? Wallabout Market, at the foot of Washington Avenue, Brooklyn, is a good example. It seems to be just a section of the city, about six blocks square, set apart for the selling of all kinds of foodstuffs. The wide, paved streets are lined with rows of two-story brick buildings, all built on the same plan. These little buildings, or stalls, as they are called, open right on the sidewalks. They are owned or rented by the wholesalers or jobbers who sell their goods to the city grocers, peddlers, and other retail merchants.

Each jobber seems to specialize in one class of foodstuffs: one offers just California fruits; another, butter, cheese, and eggs; another, poultry; and so on. The great meat-packing

companies and the wholesale grocers are also represented. In the center of the market is a great open space called Farmers' Square. Here the farmers, from Long Island, chiefly, bring in their products to dispose of them directly to the city grocer and peddler. On busy mornings as many as four hundred farmers' wagons are drawn up in the square.

All the other markets like Wallabout Market are found in Manhattan. Unfortunately, our present market sites were

Courtesy of the Health Department, City of New York

A Public Market.

acquired in the old days when the farmers sold directly to the housewives in the neighborhood. Conditions have changed since that time. Our people now are spread throughout five boroughs, too far away to visit any wholesale market.

A Market Program

The City of New York has a market program which, if carried out, will in a large measure meet our present needs. The work was begun by encouraging the railroad and steamship lines to provide better transportation facilities at their own expense. Permission was given to peddlers of food and to

farmers to establish push-cart markets on certain property owned by the city.

Department of Public Markets

In 1917 in order to plan for future improvement and to prevent cheating or shortage of food, the Department of Public Markets was organized. The work is divided among four bureaus.

(1) The Bureau of Distribution is to find better ways of distributing food, for the present methods cause much waste.

(2) The Bureau of Production tries to get a surplus of food into New York City. It encourages farmers to raise a larger quantity and a better quality of products.

(3) The Bureau of Physical Plant sends out inspectors under the supervision of the deputy commissioners to see that the rules pertaining to food are obeyed by people handling or making food.

(4) The Bureau of Information is to do the educational work of the department by teaching housewives the value of food and how to do intelligent marketing.

Terminal Market Plan

The Terminal Market Plan means that there should be one or more markets in each borough, located directly on the railroad or waterfront to save loading, hauling, and ferriage. This would give housewives who wish to go directly to the market, an opportunity to save the profit of wholesalers or other middlemen. An ideal market should be situated on the railroad; it must be large enough to hold a surplus in each booth in case supplies are delayed by storm or railroad strike. The basement should be given over to the refrigerating plant. Such cold storage enables us to have fresh fruit, eggs, and other perishable foods at times when they could not otherwise be obtained. It is particularly important for the supply of fish; the fresh fish had formerly to be sold as soon as they reached the market or they became worthless. This waste has been ended by refrigeration.

Description of a Public Market

On the main floor the different small booths for different things, such as meats, butter, vegetables, etc., can serve people

quickly. A plentiful supply of water in every booth and clean glass cases for display keep everything clean. All deliveries are made by a central automobile service. A mezzanine floor contains offices, telephones, and rest rooms. Such markets have been established in Lexington, Kentucky, and Cleveland, Ohio. The slogan of the Cleveland Market is, "Not a morsel of food for a fly to light upon." At present too many of our markets are grouped together in the lower part of Manhattan and it is the tendency of dealers in the same kind of commodities to get near one another.

Inspection

Our community is also concerned with the problem of securing us reasonably fresh, wholesome food at honest measures; we need plenty of good food to be strong and healthy citizens. Our city protects our food by examining it when it comes into our port and before it is sent to the markets. Local food inspectors examine meat and milk particularly, seeking to prevent the sale of what is spoiled or has been kept by the use of harmful preservatives. The same work is done by other inspectors who condemn perishable foods unfit for use, such as old eggs or moldy strawberries. Local or state inspectors examine weights and measures to see that dealers give true values. And local, state, and national inspectors supervise carefully the slaughter-houses and all producers of canned goods. If any inspector is suspicious of any scale, or of the label on a can, or of any food, he may have it tested in a laboratory maintained by the government.

Milk

When you take a bottle of milk from the doorstep, window sill, or kitchen door, you do not stop to think how it got there but rather, how you can eat your breakfast and get to school in time. Just as a child is required to obey the rules and regulations of his school, so the farmer must obey those of the Board of Health if he wishes to sell his milk in New York.

Protection of Milk

Everybody uses milk in one form or another. It contains all the elements that nourish the body. Milk may be a most dangerous food. Many fatal diseases may breed in it. Deaths

of thousands of babies, epidemics of typhoid, and other diseases may be traced to an impure milk supply. Bacteria are always in milk to a greater or less degree. These invisible organisms may come from the cow, from filthy conditions in the stable, or from dirt in the stores. Most of the bacteria that find their way into milk are harmless unless they are allowed to increase. If they have been allowed to multiply milk

Machine-milked Cows.

becomes unfit to be used. Occasionally bacteria that may cause tuberculosis, scarlet fever, or diphtheria are found in milk. The Bureau of Food and Drugs is safeguarding our supply of milk by its methods of inspection and pasteurization.

Cleanliness in Milk Production

Have you ever visited a farm in the country where the farmer keeps a great many cows so that he can send their milk to the city for the people to drink? You would have found the stables spotless, the cows clean and healthy, and the men

working around the milk very clean. The result is good, healthful milk. But suppose the stables had been dirty, the cows ill kept, and the men careless. Would the milk be good for the people to use? No, but the consumers would not have known that.

Milk Inspection

If an inspector is in doubt as to the quality of the milk, he sends a sample in an iced container to the Division of Laboratories where it is tested and the bacterial count taken. New York City's Health Department maintains that if any farmer of an adjoining state or one from Canada wishes to sell his milk to New Yorkers, he must comply with the laws of the Health Department and must have his barns inspected.

Persons with infectious diseases are not allowed to handle milk or any other food. Workers have often been ignorant of the fact that they carry diseases. Now they are required to be examined and must carry with them their health certificates. They are often requested to show these certificates. Another duty of the food inspectors is to see that such certificates are in the possession of every food handler.

Why Pasteurize

The Health Department used to believe in safe, raw milk and tried to provide the city with such milk. Frequent outbreaks of disease were traced back to the milk supply. This made the department realize that inspection alone could not provide the city with pure, raw milk. The numerous dairies were scattered over too wide an area to be inspected. In 1910, the department demanded that all companies must heat their milk to 145° F. and hold it at that temperature for thirty minutes. It must then be chilled quickly and kept at a temperature of not more than 50°. The result of this process, which is called pasteurization, is to increase the lasting quality of the milk and to remove the danger of disease bacteria. Only one per cent of the city's supply is sold in raw milk. Such milk is produced from most carefully selected herds under the most sanitary conditions.

At present milk is graded. Its grade is determined by the

bacterial count. Grades "A raw" and "A pasteurized" contain the smallest amount of bacteria and are recommended for babies and other children. Grade "B pasteurized" contains more bacteria but is still good for drinking. Grade "C pasteurized" should never be used for anything except cooking. **Grades of Milk**

The city milk inspectors may drop into a shipping station, jump aboard a milk train, or stop a delivery wagon on the

TESTING THE PURITY OF MILK.

street. In every case the milk is tested. The method of retailing milk, and especially dipped milk, is most carefully supervised. In the delivery wagon or in the store, especially in warm weather, ice should be used to maintain an even temperature.

The difficulty of keeping the milk pure remains. In a dairy store the customer may buy a quart of loose milk. Instead of dipping the milk out of the container there should be a faucet

near the bottom of the container so that it can remain closed. Bacteria are everywhere in the air and each time the can is opened these germs enter it. It does not make any difference how clean the place, utensils, cans, and store-keeper may be, these deadly germs find their way into milk that is exposed to the air.

Bakeries

Next to milk, most of us need bread. In this century the baking of bread has been transferred from the home to modern, well-equipped bakeries where fresh wholesome bread may be obtained three times a day. There is, however, danger to all food from the bacteria in dust or dirt, and so special regulations are made by our Board of Health that all utensils used in making bread must be thoroughly cleansed after every using, that every one who handles the bread must be free from communicable disease, and that all kinds of baked goods must be kept only in the dust-proof cases or be carefully wrapped up. Bakeries are visited about once a month by two or more officers of the Board of Health; one inspects the sanitary conditions, such as the cleanliness of the utensils; another notes the way in which the goods are displayed and protected from dust and flies. Each inspector fills out a printed form to show whether the proprietor is complying with the regulations. Baked goods and their ingredients are not, however, tested for purity and quality unless consumers send word to the Department of Health that some particular product is doubtful.

Meat

Government inspection is a tremendous factor in the production of meat. The breeder knows that his cattle must undergo an examination by a number of government experts. These experts must be graduated veterinaries and are required to pass a rigid civil service examination before they are admitted to the Government Inspection Bureau.

All slaughter-houses and stock-yards doing interstate business are under the control of the Bureau of Animal Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture. This includes most of the slaughter-houses in New York City.

Federal, State, and City Inspection

Our greatest insurance against unwholesome meat is the blue stamp of Government Approval. Sometimes tainted food or meat is treated with chemicals. This treatment gives the food a fresh appearance and it is sold as such. If the inspector has any doubts about a piece of meat, proof as to whether preservatives have been used can be quickly secured in

INSPECTION OF MEAT.

the government laboratory and the bad meat is destroyed. If this food has come from another state, the manufacturer has violated the national Food and Drugs Act. The case is dealt with by the United States Department of Justice. If the food has been manufactured in the state, the state food law has been violated. The offender is prosecuted in any local court. Every year thousands of pounds of meat are discarded by the state inspector even though it bears the federal inspector's stamp.

This often happens because the meat decays while being transported from the slaughter-house to the warehouses or the stores.

Sometimes meat is found, in public markets, bearing the city stamp. This is what is called country-killed meat. It is meat that has been killed by a state farmer who has sent the carcass to the city market to be sold. This meat does not come under the federal inspector's supervision because these farmers are not doing interstate business in meat.

Protection against Dirt and Carelessness

Finally to protect the consumer against dirt and carelessness in handling meat all city markets, cold storage plants, and retail shops are inspected by the city health officers. Inspect your own butcher store to see if your report is equal to this one:

In a butcher shop one day it was noticed that the meat was kept apart from the ice. The woodwork was whitewashed. The refrigerator was lined with a metallic substance so that it might be watertight. Sawdust was scattered over the floor to absorb any spillings of blood and fat. Floors had been washed at least three times that week. All chopping blocks had been thoroughly scraped and washed.

It is every one's duty to see that these things are carried out. If they are not, one should write a letter to the Chief Inspector of Meats.

Most of the meat slaughtered within the City of New York is *kosher* meat, to fulfill the requirements of the Jewish law. It is inspected not only by the city officers but also by a Rabbi, so that it bears his stamp as well as that of the city, to certify his approval.

Green Goods

Fruit and vegetables come in for their share of inspection. If the health officers at the docks or the markets find any that are not fit to be sold, they immediately order them "dumped" or thrown away so that they cannot be used. For instance, if an inspector finds that strawberries are moldy, he puts a tag on the box saying that the strawberries are not to be sold in

New York City. The man to whom they belong is to dump them; and if he doesn't, he is severely punished. Sometimes his permit is taken away from him and he is no longer allowed to sell vegetables.

After inspection the fruit and vegetables are sold to the wholesaler, the retailer, and then to the consumer. There are also inspectors who come around to these stores. They see that the stores are kept clean; that all grapes, berries, etc., are covered so that no flies can get to them, and that the vegetables that are being sold are still in good condition.

Different kinds of vegetables and fruit need different treatment. Berries have to be sold quickly because they rot very easily. Leafy vegetables must have good attention because they get old and withered. Try not to buy them when they look as if they had been washed, as they may not be fresh. Sometimes a head of lettuce filled with dirt is better than one that has been washed.

Cold Storage

Many vegetables that keep fairly well, like beets or celery, fruits, and a great part of our butter, cheese, and eggs are kept in cold storage until they are needed. This is a great advantage because it distributes the supply evenly throughout the whole year instead of marketing so much butter in summer that the farmers cannot sell it and so little late in the fall that the price soars. Philip Hone, once Mayor of New York, records in his diary that in September, 1836, he bought the butter for his family to salt down for the winter at $2.14 a pound, when in the spring, good butter could be had for 15 cents a pound. However this was before cold storage was invented.

Also there is danger of keeping food too long in cold storage, for though decay there is very slow it does not altogether cease. Food taken out of cold storage and kept at the ordinary temperature will also decay much faster than fresh food. Therefore, it is necessary to have laws regulating this business. There must be a date stamp on the container or somewhere on every article sent to cold storage so that one can tell when it was put

in; and nothing is to be sold that has been more than ten months in the warehouse except butter, which may remain twelve months; if anything has once been taken out, it is not to be returned to a cold storage warehouse, and stores that sell any cold storage food must have a sign hung where the customers can see it, saying, "Cold Storage Food Sold Here."

Photo by Brown Bros.

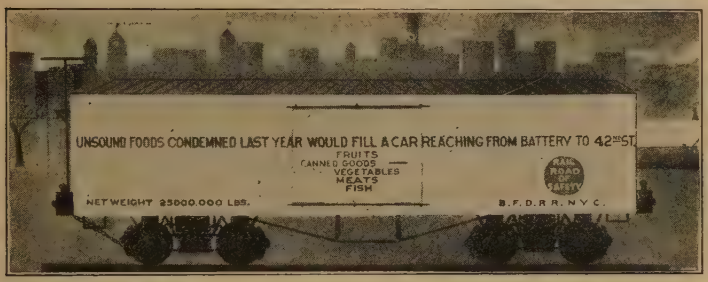
In the Butter Room of a Cold Storage Warehouse.

Canned Goods

Canning is an older method of preserving food. Almost anything can be cooked and kept in an air-tight container, so that it will not spoil until air is let in. Ezra Daggett and Thomas Kensett began the preservation of fish and oysters as an industry, in New York about 1818, and a little later William Underwood and Charles Mitchell started a similar business in Boston, also putting up pickles, sauces, jams, and jellies. Kensett patented the use of tin cans for preserving in 1825.

There are machines for almost every step of the handling of different fruits and vegetables; moving trays that carry the goods, tunnels where jets of water are constantly running to wash the products, sorters, slicers, fillers, and cappers. For steam cooking a number of cans with soldered tops are placed on a tray and lowered into one of the great cooking boilers; the cover of the boiler is then closed, and steam turned on for the cooking. There is a little hole left in the top of each can for the escape of air and steam. When the cooking is finished the cans are hoisted out of the boiler, and a drop of solder is placed on the hole to seal the can.

Cans should never be labeled until perfectly cold. If products are to be sold, they should be freshly labeled just before



shipping and have the net weight stated in pounds and ounces with the packer's name and address on each. The sealed end should be placed down so the smooth end will appear on the top when standing on the shelf. The paste used should be placed on the label only at the end, so that no paste will touch the tin. Paste may rust the tin so that it will crack and let in air.

Pure Food Laws

The purchaser of groceries, jellies, catsup, or other canned goods has no sure way of protecting himself against impure or adulterated goods. By the use of chemicals spoiled foods can be changed so that anything offensive to the taste or smell is concealed. The ordinary purchaser, moreover, usually cannot tell the difference between a genuine article and a substitute. Unscrupulous men have taken advantage of such igno-

rance to get rid of food which, had its real condition been known, could never have been sold.

In 1906 public indignation was aroused against the products turned out by packing houses and manufacturers of canned goods. The national government and a majority of states at once passed pure food laws. Most of these laws require the manufacturers of foods and drugs to mention the ingredients of products, giving in detail on their labels the amount of substances that might be considered injurious.

Thousands of people think the statement "Guaranteed under the Food and Drugs Act, June 30, 1906" is a guarantee by the government of the purity and wholesomeness of the food bearing the label. This is not true. The government has not examined the material, and the label, "Guaranteed under the Pure Food Act," is merely the manufacturer's statement to the government that he does not consider his products adulterated, misbranded, or injurious to health.

There is one more kind of fraud against which we need the protection of the government; it is only too easy to give short weight or short measure. City, state, and national governments coöperate in trying to prevent this.

Bureau of Weights and Measures

When Inspector Martin entered the fruit store on Stratford and Barnard avenues and asked for five pounds of potatoes, the dealer immediately served his customer, but he did not note the keen eyes fixed on the scale. As all inspectors do, this one searched for the label which signifies that the weight has been tested, but it was not there. When the dealer had weighed out the potatoes, he received his pay together with a summons, which ordered him to appear in court the following day and answer the charges against him for having an incorrect weight and using it without the seal of the Mayor's Bureau of Weights and Measures. When, the next day, the dealer appeared in court, he was fined five dollars, a small amount because it was his first offense. But he was not allowed to use his scale even after it had been fixed, until it was tested.

It is because of cases like the one just mentioned, that people are urged to see the necessity of learning to read a scale and of possessing a reliable one at home. Housewives, especially, are urged to give this matter attention.

This is the kind of work that is done by the Mayor's Bureau of Weights and Measures. The city is divided into districts, with an inspector of weights and measures assigned to each. Each inspector is equipped with an accurate scale and all the

Photo by Brown Bros.

CONFISCATING FALSE SCALES AND MEASURES.

common standards. These standards are fixed by the national government. At the Bureau of Standards in the Department of Commerce in Washington, there is a large safe with all the various types of weights and measures that we use in the United States. Copies of this set are presented to each state.

Here are some *don'ts:*

(1) *Don't* allow your grocer or dairyman to weigh butter in a wooden butter dish. These dishes frequently weigh, in accordance with their size, from one to three ounces. You

will observe some of them very prettily decorated with tin on the edge. Remember if they weigh these in, they are selling you the tin and the wood at the price of butter.

(2) *Don't* let the fancy goods fascinate you, because you are frequently paying very heavily for the fancy package and in most cases getting considerably less of the product than you would by buying it loose. Butter put up in prints is sanitary,

Photo by Brown Bros.

THROWING FALSE SCALES AND MEASURES OVERBOARD.

but be sure you are getting sixteen ounces of butter apart from the paper or the carton.

(3) *Don't* be ashamed or too proud to do your own purchasing. By going into the store to make your purchases yourself and not sending a messenger or telephoning, you can protect yourself against fraud both in the quality of the goods as well as in weights and measures.

(4) *Don't* buy ice from your dealer unless he weighs the ice for you immediately before delivery in accordance with the law.

Duty of the Citizen

The government has taken a great part of the responsibility but it cannot afford a sufficient number of inspectors. Therefore, in return for its help the citizen should look around him to see if there is anything wrong; and if there is, he should speak to the proprietor. If that is of no avail he should report the case to the Municipal Health Department. The high school student is especially looked to for help in this great work. Most of the time grown folks are in a hurry and do not ask the store-keeper why he does not have his bread either in a box or covered with screening or netting. The high school students should always try to spare a few minutes to speak to the store-keeper and if the latter does not see the point as he should, the matter should be reported. This is about all we can do in return for the watchfulness and help of the authorities in safeguarding the purity of our food supply. We should all try to coöperate.

CHAPTER III

PUBLIC REGULATION OF BUILDINGS

BY

Julia Richman High School

Father Knickerbocker looked out of his window upon his city, the largest in the world. His heart filled with fatherly pride.

"The greatest city!" he pondered, "but should not the greatest city be the finest, the cleanest, the most beautiful city?"

"Father Knickerbocker," interrupted his secretary, who had come into the room, "your agents are here for the meeting, and there is also a very excited lady outside who calls herself Mrs. Public and insists on seeing you."

"Good — tell the commissioners the meeting is convened and tell Mrs. Public I will see her."

As the secretary left the room, he motioned to Mrs. Public to enter.

"Father Knickerbocker," burst forth that estimable lady, "I am sorry to interrupt you, but I really must tell you about the ceiling in my kitchen — it has been leaking for six weeks."

"Just a minute, madam. You have happened in at a very opportune time. My experts on buildings and zoning are about to meet. If you have the time, I should like to have you present." Turning to the commissioners, who had come in, Father Knickerbocker called the meeting to order, saying: "I have called you together to hear your reports. We have the pleasure of having Mrs. Public with us, who has a complaint to make before we start our regular business. Mrs. Public —"

"Yes, indeed, I have, it's about the roof in my house. Water from melting snow has been leaking through the ceiling into my kitchen for six weeks. I complained to the janitor without success. I called up the landlord at least six times, but not

a bit of satisfaction did I get. It's a shame when a decent body pays good money for five miserable little rooms and gets treatment like that. My friend, Mrs. Jones, tells me about the fine house she has, and all for the same rent — windows in every room, bath room, fine clean halls, good fixtures in the kitchen — I don't think it's fair. She told me her dumbwaiter was broken,

Photo by Brown Bros.

MOST PEOPLE IN NEW YORK LIVE, WORK, AND PLAY IN BUILDINGS.

so she telephoned down here and the Tenement House Department compelled the landlord to fix it. I think the Tenement House Department ought to do something about my ceiling."

"Yes, madam," said Father Knickerbocker, "we will send an inspector up immediately. Make a note of it, Mr. Secretary. And now, madam, perhaps we can make the tenement house situation clear to you. Mr. Commissioner of the Tenement House Department, have you your official data with you?"

Investigations of Complaints

"Yes, your Honor, and I shall be glad to aid our good friend, Mrs. Public," replied the Commissioner. Then, turning to that somewhat calmed lady, he began to tell of the work done by the department he represented.

Definition of a Tenement

"You see," he said, "a great many people do not know what they mean when they use the term *tenement house*. I define a tenement house as any building that is the home or residence

Photo by Brown Bros.

TWO THIRDS OF THE POPULATION OF NEW YORK CITY LIVE IN TENEMENT HOUSES.

of three or more families, living independently of one another and doing their cooking on the premises. For example, Mrs. Public, if you lived in a two-family house and had a married daughter for whom you fixed up the attic as living rooms; you would have to comply with our orders, since there would now be three families in the house. These rules apply to large apartment houses as well as three-family houses. There are at

present two thirds of the population of New York City living in tenements, and we have more than one hundred thousand such houses under our jurisdiction."

"Yes, Mr. Commissioner," interrupted Mrs. Public, "but why are there some good tenement houses like Mrs. Jones's and some bad ones like the one in which I live? It isn't fair."

"It is true that there is a great variety of tenement houses under our control," answered the Commissioner, "but our department has tried to remedy it as far as possible. In 1901 the New York State Legislature passed a law that raised the standard of construction and restricted the height of tenement buildings. Since that date, all owners desiring to build new tenement houses have been compelled to file plans with the new Building Bureau. This Bureau has rules regarding the size of buildings, light, ventilation, sanitary conveniences, and protection against fire. If the plans comply with these rules, the building permit is granted. This department guards health and safety by en-

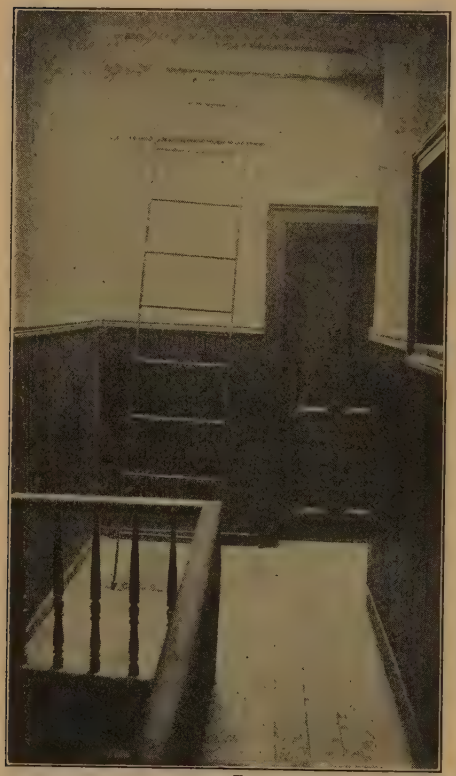
Tenement House Department.

EXIT TO THE ROOF BEFORE INSPECTION.

New Law Tenements

forcing its rules after the building is completed. The most important regulations in regard to new tenements are:

1. Every room shall have at least one window opening upon the street or upon a yard or court. This includes alcove rooms.
2. No living room shall be less than nine feet high.
3. Walls and ceiling of cellar and basement shall be damp proof.
4. A sink with running water shall be provided for each apartment.
5. The building shall be of fire-proof construction if it is more than six stories high.
6. All leaks in plumbing shall be repaired immediately.
7. The ladder or stairway to the roof shall be stationary and free from all encumbrances.
8. All fire escapes shall be kept painted and in good repair.
9. A light shall be kept burning near the stairs on the entrance floor, and upon the second floor above the



Tenement House Department.

EXIT TO THE ROOF AFTER INSPECTION.

entrance floor, every night from sunset to sunrise, and upon all floors from sunset until 10 P.M.

10. No room shall be so overcrowded that it affords less than 400 cubic feet of air to each adult and 200 cubic feet to each child under 12 years of age.

Old Law Tenements

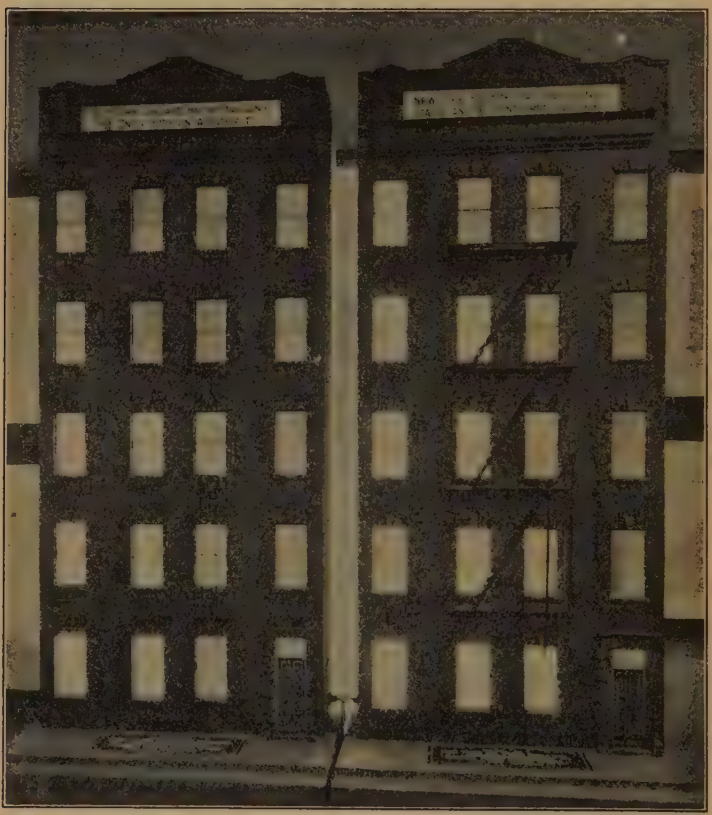
"Then there are the dilapidated buildings, that menace the lives of the people who live in them. If the department is informed that there are such buildings we immediately take charge of them and see that they are renovated to conform to our minimum standards of housing. These buildings we call old law tenements. Besides seeing that regulations are made, we see that they are carried out. If the owners refuse to obey the orders in regard to plumbing and building violations, we serve them a summons to appear in court to explain their negligence.

Tenement House Department.

WINDOWS CUT THROUGH THE WALLS INCREASE THE LIGHT AND AIR IN EACH ROOM.

"One of the special duties of the department is to see that all rooms in which people live have some sort of window. In cases where it is impossible for a window to open directly to the open air, the room may connect with one that has such a window. There shall also be a skylight over the hall stairway and glass panels and transoms in the

doors that open to the hall. All such houses must have fire escapes that open directly to each apartment. These fire escapes must have a safe means of exit to the street. A tenement house inspector has a great many things for which he



Tenement House Department.

FIRE ESCAPES ARE INSPECTED FOR SAFETY AND FREEDOM FROM OBSTRUCTION.

is responsible. There is a special bureau of the Tenement House Department called the Old Building Bureau, which does the work of supervising old law tenements. I shall briefly outline the chief things that an inspector must investigate.

1. Condition of cellar.
2. Roof for leaks and safety appliances.
3. Condition of halls.
4. Plumbing defects.
5. Fire escapes — for safety and freedom from obstruction.
6. Yards — for cleanliness, safety, and drainage."

"Yes, Mr. Commissioner," said Mrs. Public, "I see that there are two distinct types of tenement houses, but what I should

Tenement House Department.

A YARD BEFORE THE OLD BUILDING BUREAU INSPECTED IT.

like to know is why there are so many more of the old kind."

"A very reasonable question, Mrs. Public. You see, when the law was passed in 1901, there were thousands of the old type of houses in New York. Of course, it would have been impossible to tear them all down, so the best we could do was to make the owners renovate them to conform them to a minimum standard. Your house is apparently of the old style; and, therefore, there is a difference between it and the house in which your friend lives. In 1920 and 1922 the New York

State Legislature passed a law allowing one- and two-family houses to be exempt from taxes if they were built within a year after the passage of the law and if the construction costs did not exceed $10,000. This law has already relieved the crowded conditions to some extent; and we hope to make some plans in the near future which will do away with a great many of the worst of the old tenements."

Tenement House Department.

A YARD AFTER INSPECTION.

"A very excellent explanation, Mr. Commissioner," said Father Knickerbocker, "I am sure that Mrs. Public will profit by it and will do all that she can to help your work."

"I am very glad indeed that I came to complain about the ceiling for now I understand a great deal more about the work that is being done for us, and I mean to help others to understand it too. Thank you for the chance to be at this meeting. Good morning."

The door had hardly closed on Mrs. Public when it was thrown open violently to admit an angry and excited man.

With a muttered apology he flung an official looking document on the table saying, "What's the meaning of this?"

"Why, this is an order sent out from my Building Bureau!"

"But why was it sent to me? I don't see why a ten-foot chimney won't be just as good on my pickle factory as a twenty-foot chimney. I wish I had never started to rebuild that old factory. Every time I turn around, I get an order to do something different! In the first place I had to have plans made —"

"Yes, Mr. Public," interrupted Father Knickerbocker, "you were required to have plans made; and, if you will be a little patient, perhaps, we can tell you why. Will the Superintendent of Buildings explain these orders?"

Tenement House Department.

CONTRAST BETWEEN WIDTH OF COURT REQUIRED IN OLD AND NEW LAW TENEMENT HOUSES.

A. — Old Law. B. — New Law.

Building Bureau

"Certainly, sir. You see, Mr. Public, the most important work that New York has to do is to protect life. Now since most people in New York live, work, and play in some kind of a building, it is essential that every building in the city be as safe as we can reasonably make it. That is why we have a Building Bureau. Because it is such a big undertaking, the Bureau is placed under the general direction of

the Borough President in each borough, who appoints the Superintendent of Buildings. The inspectors of the department are all trained men who must pass a Civil Service examination before they enter the service. Our duties are to prevent weak construction of buildings, defective plumbing, and inadequate safeguards against fires. Before a builder begins to

Construction of Buildings

Tenement House Department.

LARGE COURT IN NEW LAW TENEMENT SHOWING ADVANTAGES THROUGH LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE.

construct a new building, he must first submit complete plans, which are carefully studied by the examining division. If they are found contrary to the building regulations of the city, the plans are amended so that they conform to the requirements as to thickness of walls, quality of building materials, strength of floors, construction of chimney, and

fireproof materials. A permit is also issued to plumbers and contractors. While the building is being erected, the different classes of inspectors visit it to insist that the plans are carried out in full. They also examine the kinds of material that are being used, lest a lower grade of material be substituted. The workmanship is investigated to prevent any slipshod construction methods. Finally the plumbing, in-

Tenement House Department.

TYPE OF MODERATELY PRICED TENEMENT HOUSE APPROVED BY TENEMENT HOUSE DEPARTMENT.

cluding water, gas, and waste pipes, is tested. When the building is completed, the owner must apply to the Superintendent of Buildings for a Certificate of Occupancy, which this department gives him if he has complied with the prescribed rules.

Unsafe Buildings

"Besides taking care of buildings in the process of construction, the Bureau of Buildings must also examine buildings supposed to be unsafe, as, for example, a building in which there has recently been a fire. I wonder, Mr. Public, if you know

that every time you ride in an elevator you do so with safety because the Bureau of Buildings has tested the elevator not only upon installation but at least once within the three months just passed. I wonder if you know that when you go into a theater or a moving picture house, you do so safely because

Photo by Brown Bros.

ELEVATORS ARE TESTED EVERY THREE MONTHS.

those buildings have been inspected by this department. And more than that, if a Boy Scout troop that met in a church building, or club house, wanted to install and operate a moving picture machine they would have to obtain permission from the Fire Department. That department enforces all rules regarding safety against fire in public buildings, under which classification a church building belongs. The Health Depart-

Public Buildings

ment coöperates in determining whether the sanitary arrangements of all public buildings are satisfactory and whether there is sufficient air for all whom the place will hold. Before the building is occupied, the strength and general structure are cared for by the Building Bureau.

"As for this order — I see it reads: 'Order to build a twenty-foot chimney on a building which is to be used in manufactur- **Industrial Housing**

Photo by Brown Bros.

THE UNITED STATES CUSTOM HOUSE, BOWLING GREEN, MANHATTAN.

ing.' We sent you that order for two reasons: In the first place, without consulting any one you changed the output of your factory from shirts to pickles, that is, from an odorless process with no cooking, to one of disagreeable odors. Now, we do not believe that a six-foot chimney will carry enough draft to make your factory free from danger of fire. In the second place, the spice and vinegar odors from the boiling of pickles and the smoke from your fire will be carried to the rooms of the

people who live in the next apartment house, which is taller than your factory. I have no doubt that you yourself would want the condition remedied if you lived next door to your factory."

"Well, if you put it that way, I suppose I should. But that isn't the only thing. I declare, it isn't worth a man's while to save for starting a business. First, you forced me to have plans for renovating and altering the building, then I had to strengthen the floors, cut new windows, break down partitions, make stairs fireproof, put in iron doors and fire-escapes. It seemed as if your inspectors were continually looking to see if things were being done right! Next, I had a sprinkler installed then I removed some fine new machines for bottling the pickles; and now this" — he again indicated the hated twenty-foot chimney order — "I tell you I'm sick of it!"

METROPOLITAN LIFE BUILDING, MADISON SQUARE, MANHATTAN.

"You certainly have had your troubles, sir," sympathized Father Knickerbocker, "and I must truthfully state that I am responsible for many, though not all of them, as you will see. As the head of the Building Bureau just explained to you, all matters relative to the construction of new buildings or the renovation of old dwellings for use as factories are attended

to by the Building Bureau. Plans must be filed, and inspectors from this Bureau see that all specifications as to height, thickness of walls, strength of floors, construction of chimneys, quality of materials, and proper fireproofing are carried out. Naturally, where an old building is remodeled, the requirements are not so strict as where a new one is constructed. It was the Superintendent of Buildings, therefore, who made you cut windows

Photo by Brown Bros.

MR. PUBLIC HAD TO PUT A TWENTY-FOOT CHIMNEY ON HIS FACTORY.

and strengthen floors, break down partitions, and fireproof the stairs."

"Yes, but that wasn't all," continued Mr. Public. "There was the sprinkler and —"

"Not only is the Bureau of Buildings interested in your factory," continued the Commissioner, "but the State Labor Authorities, the City Department of Health, and the City Fire Department. Your building must be kept safe and habitable after the Certificate of Occupancy has been given you. Roughly

speaking, everything that affects the health, safety, and comfort of your workers is supervised by the State Labor Department. Factory inspectors see that you have enough light and air, that machines are not too close together (that was why you had to take out your bottling machine), that the floors and walls, stairs and hallways are strong and firm; that the building is properly warmed; that there are adequate, clean, sanitary arrangements such as washrooms and toilets; that the hours of labor are not too long and that all laws regarding labor are being carried out. The Health Department investigates any case of nuisance, unsanitary plumbing, offensive odors; keeps an eye open for sickness and disease, and violations of the anti-spitting law; and now enforces the physical examination of all food handlers. It is the Fire Department that orders you to put in the sprinkler so that in case of fire, water, automatically released by the heat from the fire, may aid in extinguishing it. Meanwhile the alarm is automatically sent in; and if any of your employees are in the building, they are given a chance to escape. The Fire Department, through its inspectors, regulates many other matters as, for instance, the time necessary to empty the building in drill, the handling of explosives, the arrangement of fire exits, stairways, gas jets, and the elimination of all encumbrances, especially inflammable material."

Labor Laws

Health Laws

Fire Laws

"Excellent, Mr. Commissioner, excellent," commended Father Knickerbocker. "Is there anything else you would like to know, sir?"

"Yes, Father Knickerbocker, can't you do something about this? A few days ago a garage opened next to my pickle factory, and the odor of gasoline ruins the flavor of my pickles. The garage man refuses to move — he says he has the right to be there."

"Mr. Public, I am glad you have come," a brisk man exclaimed. "I believe I can help you. Where is your plant located?"

"415 X Street."

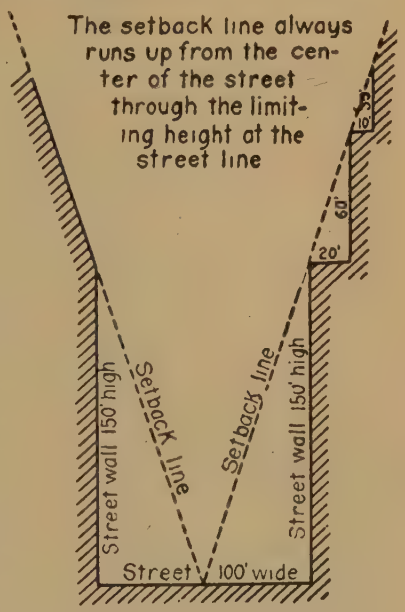
"Just a minute, please. Now, according to my chart, that block is in an unrestricted zone, and you have no ground for complaint."

"No ground for complaint! Why, he's ruining my business! Everything smells of gas, worse — it tastes of gas." **Zoning Law**

"Let me explain. That block is unrestricted, and, therefore, buildings for any use may be erected on it — factory, garage, slaughter-house, warehouse."

"But this garage is ruining my business, isn't it?"

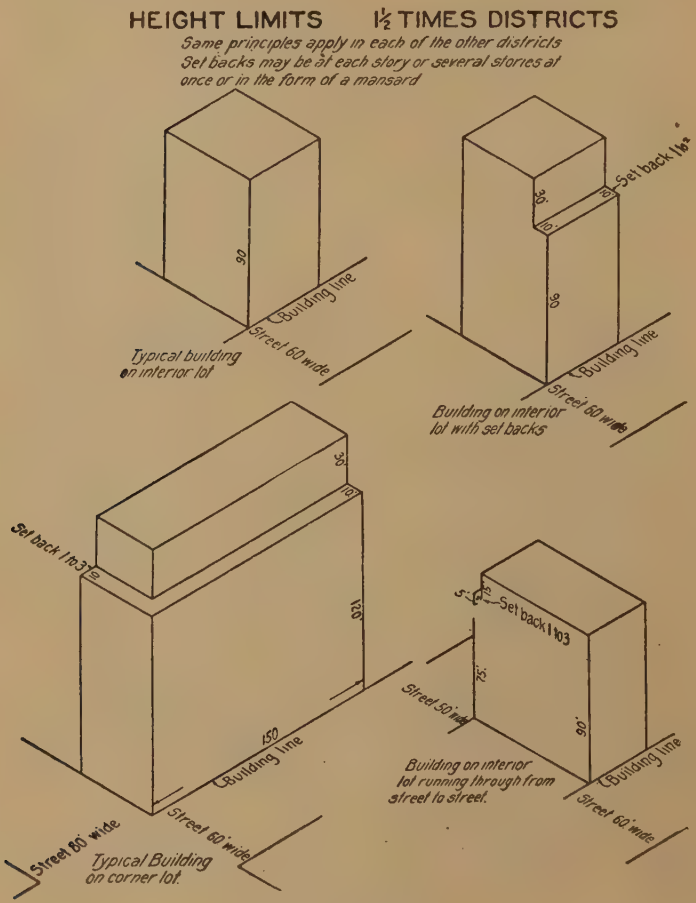
"Possibly, but let me tell you why he is there. Back in 1909 that sort of thing was going on all over the city, resulting in lowering of property values and loss of business. But in that year the Zoning Commission was appointed. Its work was to arrange buildings in zones according to height and use. So far as possible it did so.


The setback line always runs up from the center of the street through the limiting height at the street line
10'
60'
20'
Setback Line
Setback Line
Street wall 150' high
Street wall 150' high
Street 100' wide

THIS ZONING REGULATION INSURES LIGHT IN THE STREET.

"Certain streets are reserved for residences only, as Fifth Avenue from 59th to 100th streets; others may be used for residences, business buildings, and certain factory buildings. Most of the avenues belong in this group, while the rest of the city is unrestricted and may be used for ship yards, railroad yards, noisy factories, slaughter-houses, etc. In order to make it fair, we have often zoned block by block, so that while your home block **Zones for Use**

may be purely residential, the avenue block nearest you may be business, and another, unrestricted. In order to provide



ZONING DIAGRAMS.

for the future development of the city, large tracts, as yet unoccupied, have been zoned for business, residence, and factory buildings. Moreover, if the landowners or business owners

Photo by Underwood and Underwood.

STANDARD OIL BUILDING. NEW YORK'S NEWEST SKYSCRAPER IS "TAPERED" TO ALLOW THE CITY SOME LIGHT AND AIR.

on a block wish to change its class 40 per cent of them may bring the matter before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, while 20 per cent of them can prevent the character of the street from being so changed.

Zones for Height

"Now as to height. Before the Zoning Commission was created, excessively high buildings were likely to spring up in any part of the city, often menacing safety and cutting off the light and air from the surrounding structures. Since the creation of the Zoning Commission, this is no longer possible, for the city has been divided into height zones. These zones are called *one times, one and a quarter times, one and a half times, two times*, and *two and one half times* zones according to the maximum height of the building allowed on that street. In a *two times* district, for instance, the height of the structure may be twice the width of the street (200 feet on a 100-foot street). If a man wishes to increase the height of his building to a greater elevation than the district allows, he may do so by setting his front wall back one foot from the street for every few feet of its height above the limit prescribed. In a two times district, for example, this would be one foot set back for every four feet elevation. Because of this law, many buildings which resemble terraces or pyramids are being erected in New York. Towers may reach any height provided their base does not occupy more than 25 per cent of the lot. In the so-called area zone the size of the building is determined by the size of the lot on which the building is to be erected. In these zones the amount of ground to be used in building is also taken into consideration."

"Well, that is an excellent idea," agreed Mr. Public, "only I wish more people could have heard your explanation as I have, for then we should have fewer foolish complaints. You certainly have made me understand the building situation and I am going to urge my family and neighbors to make this the finest, cleanest, and most beautiful city in the world. Good afternoon, gentlemen. Good afternoon, Father Knickerbocker, and thank you again."

CHAPTER IV

DISPOSAL OF CITY WASTES

BY

Commercial High School

"Watch them," called John Green as he tore some paper into little bits for the wind to carry away.

"Some one will have the task of picking them up," said his friend, as he noted the bits of paper scattered about the sidewalk. "What's the idea?" he added.

"No idea," answered John Green. "It doesn't make any difference; the street-cleaner will be along soon to pick them up."

"No idea." That's the difficulty with the boys and the girls and the grown-ups of New York City. They have no idea of the tremendous problems that face the city every day in *keeping the streets clean and getting rid of the wastes.*

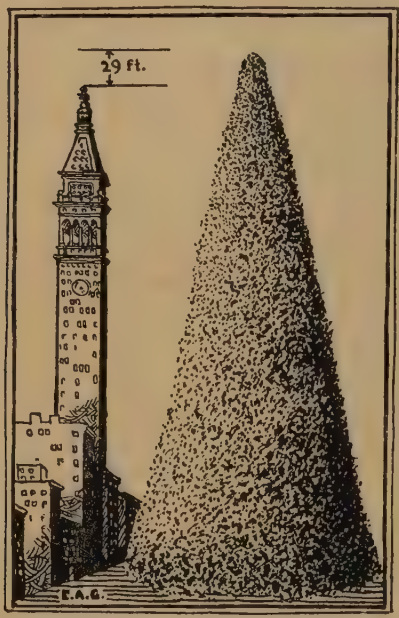
The City Housekeeper

Let us ask John Green a question. Would he tear up paper and throw the pieces about his living room because he knew that his mother would be around soon to pick up the pieces? John Green would tell us that his mother is a busy housekeeper with much to do, and that he tries to be of service to her instead of hindering her in her work. The city also is a very busy housekeeper with many jobs on its hands. The problems of John Green's mother and of the city are very much alike. Let us compare these problems. First, John Green's mother must clean her house; the city must clean the streets. In cleaning her house John Green's mother must consider the amount of work to be performed, the help, the methods to be used, and the cooperation of her family. These are the problems the city faces:

the amount of work to be done, the help needed, the methods to be used, and the coöperation of her family of citizens.

Amount of Work

Let us take each of these points in detail. In the amount of work to be done, John Green's mother has perhaps a five-room apartment to keep clean; the Commissioner of Street Cleaning has 1,554 miles of streets to keep clean, and takes care of the needs of a six-million resident population and a one-million transient population. The Commissioner must supervise the cleaning, sprinkling, washing, and sanding of these streets.



CITY WASTE OF 1922, IF COLLECTED IN CITY HALL PARK, WOULD FORM A PILE TWENTY-NINE FEET HIGHER THAN THE METROPOLITAN TOWER.

Facts

1. The Commissioner of Street Cleaning is appointed by the Mayor.
2. He has charge of the three boroughs: Brooklyn, Manhattan and The Bronx.
3. The 1,554 miles of streets that he takes care of would form a roadway from New York to Kansas City.

Furthermore, no matter how efficient John Green's mother may be, the appearance of her house may be spoiled if the halls are untidy. His mother accordingly enlists the aid of the janitor to coöperate with her in keeping the halls, the stairs, and the outside of the house clean. The Street-cleaning Commissioner has the same difficulty. *The appearance of the city's*

streets may be spoiled if the parks are not kept clean. The city, therefore, secures the aid of the Park Department to keep the parks in good condition. This work is carried on through litter squads. In addition, receptacles for litter are placed for convenience at frequent intervals throughout the parks.

Help Needed

Perhaps John Green's mother faces the problem of doing her work herself if the apartment is small, or of securing sufficient help if her apartment is large. The city faces the problem of securing the proper kind of help to keep her streets

A Modern Knight.

clean. Whereas the "servant problem" harasses the housekeeper, the city also has its difficulties in securing regular employees. Despite the many inducements offered there is always a shortage in the labor force. At present the city employs 7,000 men. Good service is rewarded by promotion. Inefficient service is noted and results in dismissal. Welfare work is carried on among the employees. Recreation and rest rooms for the workers and the members of their families are provided. Medical and dental clinics have been established. The employees of the department are beneficiaries. The department maintains a pension fund under the Workmen's

Compensation Act. These features tend to make the employee realize that street-cleaning has advantages in the way of promotion and the pension fund enables him to feel that his family and himself are taken care of during a period of years.

Manual Methods Used

Now that we have considered the character of the work to be done, and the help needed, the third problem of methods presents itself. John Green's mother perhaps cleans her apartment in the old-fashioned way, that is, by hand-sweeping and dusting. The city also uses this method in keeping the streets

Photo by Brown Bros.

THE NEW YORK STREET CLEANER.

clean. The hand-sweeping is varied to suit the locality, the pavement, and the weather. In the business section of the city where traffic is heavy, most of the hand-sweeping must be done at night by gangs. In the residental sections of the city work is done by individual sweepers under the supervision of a district superintendent.

These sweepers, whom we call the "*white wings*," are grouped together under the block system, that is, each sweeper is responsible for the condition of a certain number of streets. They must remove the litter which is always present. *Litter consists*

of scraps of paper, newspapers, fruit skins, cigar butts, and cigarette boxes, thrown unlawfully on the streets by careless citizens. This material, especially paper, makes even an otherwise clean street appear uncleaned. This unsightly material is handled in two ways: first, in connection with the sweeper's regular duty, and secondly, as a separate item when any other cleaning is required, or when the regular force is off duty.

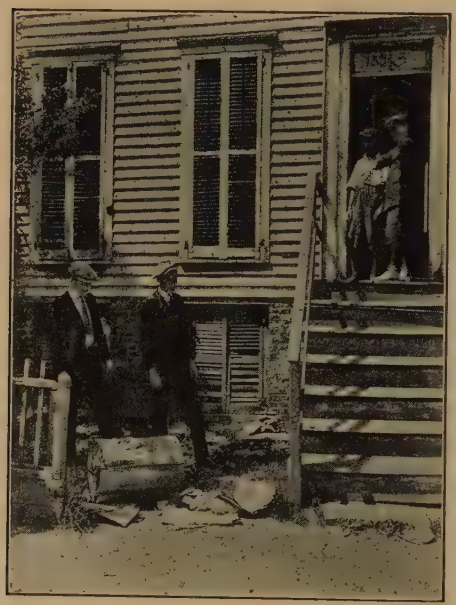
Photo by Brown Bros.

CLEANING UP A VACANT LOT.

If the careless pedestrian would remember that any additional work done on the city streets increases his taxes, he would realize that he is actually paying out of his own pocket for his own carelessness and thoughtlessness. Here the coöperation of the school children has been secured through the medium of the School Juvenile League, and the litter squads of the Merchants Association. These units offer an opportunity for school boys and girls to participate in active citizenship. The children in

the schools are taught the need of clean streets; in return they put into practice what they have learned and disseminate it in their homes and their neighborhood.

Hand-sweeping and dusting, however, are insufficient for the home and must be supplemented by water and scrubbing, so the city feels the need of more thorough cleaning at times.



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BLOCK CAPTAINS.

Water affords the best means of removing the finer particles of street dirt and dust that cannot be removed by hand. Hand-flushing with the use of a hose is the simplest method for street-cleaning at the present time. The hose-flushing gang usually consists of two men. Hand-flushing must be adapted to the locality, pavement of the streets, and weather conditions. *It is advisable to clean the streets under this method before 8* A.M. *because at this time the water pressure is at a maximum and the traffic problem presents little interference.*

Mechanical Methods Used

Just as John Green's mother uses a vacuum cleaner with which to do her work, so the city enlists the aid of machines in getting the streets cleaned. The most common machine used is the "squeegee," which is simply a scrubbing brush on wheels, motor driven, and equipped with sprinkling devices. This enables the city to scrub and flush the streets at the same

time. Another machine with the rotary sprinkling apparatus supplements hand-sweeping. This machine, operated in gangs of two or three preceded by one sprinkler, is generally used at night to sweep and clean.

Modern machinery and up-to-date methods are valueless without coöperation. John Green's mother cannot keep her apartment clean if the members of her family throw litter and refuse about; nor can the city efficiently keep the streets clean and protect the lives and the health of her citizens unless she receives the aid of her large family of six millions. The thoughtful person who enjoys the privileges offered by a large city realizes that he has corresponding duties to perform. There is always present "unavoidable dirt" which must be removed. This alone is quite sufficient to keep a large force at work day and night. The duty of the citizen is to prevent "avoidable dirt." By "avoidable dirt" is meant litter carelessly thrown on the streets and in the parks. One way of eliminating "avoidable dirt" is to separate the individual family wastes according to the rules

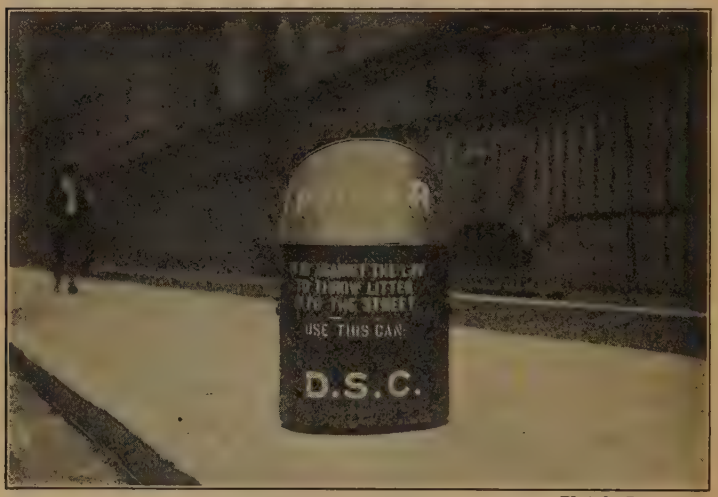
Copyright by Brown Bros.

BLOCK CAPTAINS.

prescribed by the city. This is probably one of the biggest services the individual householder can render his city.

Disposal of Solid Wastes

The family wastes are of three kinds: garbage, rubbish, and ash. *Garbage consists of table wastes, decayed fruit, and vegetables.* John Green's mother collects perhaps a can or two of such wastes every day. Multiply John Green's mother by one million and you will get some idea of the amount of garbage that accumulates daily. It has been estimated that the



WHY NOT USE IT? *Photo by Brown Bros.*

annual collection of garbage amounts to 440,000 tons. In order to facilitate the removal of this waste the householder should provide himself with a metal, air-tight, covered can capable of holding no more than 100 pounds of garbage. No can should be filled to a height greater than four inches from the top. The spread of garbage on the streets is thus prevented, the streets kept clean and no additional duties are imposed upon the street-cleaner. *Furthermore, garbage promiscuously thrown about constitutes a gross menace to the health of the citizens.*

The removal of ashes, too, presents a problem, especially in the winter. *The annual collection of ashes amounts to 2,695,000 tons.* The thoughtful householder should provide himself with a metal can to be filled to a height no greater than within four inches of the top. *Hot ashes should never be put into wooden boxes,* for this causes a fire hazard.

The Removal of Ashes

The third kind of solid waste comes under the general head of rubbish. John Green's mother perhaps received a bundle; paper, cord, excelsior, cardboard, and pieces of wood are left over as wastes from this package. These items are classed as

The Removal of Rubbish

THE WRONG KIND OF ASH CAN. THE RIGHT KIND OF ASH CAN.

rubbish. In addition newspapers, rags, old cloth, old furniture, tin cans, likewise constitute rubbish. *Newspapers and other light refuse likely to be blown or scattered about the street should be securely bundled, tied, or packed before being placed for removal.* All householders should remember the ordinance of the City of New York, which states that *receptacles, when they contain rubbish, ashes, or garbage, should be placed as near the building as possible.* Every thoughtful citizen who takes advantage of what New York offers him should dispose of his wastes in the manner described above, and at no time should he be guilty of throwing into any vacant lot, garbage, refuse, or other offensive material. New York City will be just as clean as the citizens make it.

Here, after the householder's work is ended, begins the greatest problem of the city; namely, the removal and the final disposition of the wastes.

In solving a similar problem, John Green's mother must consider these important details: the collection and the transportation of the wastes from her apartment to the cellar or the street, and the disposing of them temporarily in such a place as will not endanger the lives of her family. This problem fades into insignificance compared with the difficulties of collection, transportation, and disposal of the wastes of seven million people.

Magnitude of the Problem

It has been estimated that if all the waste material collected in New York City in 1922 by the Department of Street Cleaning were to be dumped into City Hall Park (a space $8\frac{1}{2}$ acres in area), it would make a pile that would overtop the Woolworth Building. Not only must these wastes be got rid of by the city but they must be handled in such a way as will not endanger the lives of her citizens, and her many neighbors. To collect the wastes, the householder must first separate them; then it is a simple matter for the city to remove them in separate vehicles.

Method of Transportation

Ashes and garbage are collected and carted separately in iron, water-tight, horse-drawn carts, each with a capacity of two cubic yards, and in motor-driven trucks of various makes. Rubbish is collected in wooden carts or trucks with rack bodies, each having a capacity of seven and one half cubic yards. A house-to-house collection is made in the densely populated sections daily, and in the outlying or sparsely populated sections three times per week. In the collection service the horse-drawn vehicles are worked on short hauls and the motor vehicles on the long hauls.

The final disposition of garbage is by no means easy of solution. The fact that garbage is chiefly decayed matter makes the disposition of it a problem peculiarly difficult. From 1896 to 1914 the garbage of Manhattan, Brooklyn, and The Bronx

was disposed of on Barren Island by the New York Sanitary Utilization Company. Here the garbage was "*reduced*," that is, oils and fats were taken out by a "*reduction*" process and were sold in the commercial markets. Later a reduction plant was operated on Staten Island. Frequent complaints against the plants on Barren Island were due to the fact that the companies operating them did not spend enough money on them

Photo by Brown Bros.

A Peace-time Tank.

to keep them odorless while in operation, or to prevent the offensive odor of the garbage scows while they were being loaded and unloaded.

Therefore, the reduction system was inevitably abandoned. At present, the garbage is towed out to sea over a distance of forty miles and dumped. The residents of the Rockaways, Long Beach, and other seaside resorts, both on the New York and Jersey sides, complain that this method is offensive both because of the odor and the inevitable pollution of the

water, and also because of the action of the tides which brings the garbage to the shore and leaves it there. In the boroughs of Manhattan, The Bronx, and Brooklyn which are under the supervision of the Street Cleaning Department no other method has been devised. In the boroughs of Queens and Richmond the *incinerator* is being used with success. The *incinerator* is a machine that burns garbage without producing any odor, and leaves a very small residue in comparison with the original

Photo by Brown Bros.

POWER SHOVEL OF STREET CLEANING DEPARTMENT.

bulk. Within the boroughs taken care of by the Street Cleaning Department, the possibility of incinerating garbage is being considered at present. It is necessary to provide for these plants a location that is not only convenient for the transporting of garbage to them, but that will not spoil the appearance of the general neighborhood.

Ashes and rubbish are finally disposed of in making land fills. For example: In Manhattan the ashes and rubbish are loaded on scows at water-front dumps and are dumped at Rikers Is-

land, in the East River, Bayonne, New Jersey, or Port Ivory, Staten Island. The ashes that are used to make new land bring a return to the city either by occupation, sale, or taxes and in this way "Waste is turned into profit." The rubbish also brings the city a profit. Contractors pay the city approximately four thousand dollars per month for the privilege of salvaging from the rubbish anything that is salable.

Photo by Brown Bros.

THE LATEST METHOD OF REMOVING SNOW IN NEW YORK.

The system of using ashes and rubbish described above has worked well. At present, however, it is difficult to find for the disposition of the ashes and rubbish sufficient lowlands and swamps within reasonable hauling distance of the city proper.

The Removal of Snow

To clean the city presents another problem that confronts some households. The beautiful snow, so pleasant in poetry and literature, has for years been the bane of the Street

Cleaning Department. The present method of removing snow is by "snow-fighting." No matter what hour of the day or night snow begins to fall, it is attacked by over 450 motor-driven plows which open up traffic lanes through all the principal thoroughfares. Despite the winter snow-fall of 1922–23, a fall of 52.2 inches, there has been no tie-up of traffic on city streets. After plowing, the snow is piled and finally either sewered or carted to water-front dumps.

DUMPING SNOW INTO THE RIVER. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

Sewage

Nor do the difficulties thus far presented conclude the problem confronting the city. Liquid wastes, most commonly known as "sewage," must likewise be considered. The average citizen knows practically nothing about the disposal of sewage because he is free from all obligations concerning its removal. The liquid wastes pass out of our homes through the kitchen and bath-room pipes; they then flow through sewer pipes under the streets, and are emptied into the bay. This method of sewage disposal pollutes the water of New York Harbor, and becomes a serious menace to health.

To check this pollution only one method has thus far presented itself: the construction of "sewage treatment plants." At present, the city has under consideration plans for such plants. In 1918 a screening plant was completed at Dyckman Street. At Canal Street, a sewage treatment plant has recently been opened. Wards Island is being considered as another site. "Sewage treatment plants," which will divert sewage from the waters of the harbor, and which will reduce the amount of sewage, must be built, if the waters about New York are to

Photo by Brown Bros.

MUCH OF THE SNOW IS DUMPED INTO THE SEWERS.

be kept healthy. Such plants require relatively large areas, and would thus demand an almost prohibitive outlay. There remains only the question of cost, which fades into insignificance compared with the imperative need of freeing the waters from pollution.

A Never-ending Task

In conclusion, John Green's mother will tell you that housekeeping is an endless job; no matter how much coöperation she receives from her family, there is always something to be done. If she fails to receive this aid she is forced to do an extra amount of work, and an extra expenditure of energy and money results.

The city's housekeeping job, likewise, is never finished. Day and night the "white-wings" are on the job cleaning, flushing, and scrubbing the streets. Day and night the scows remove the garbage to sea and take the ashes and rubbish to land-fills. If the city fails to receive the coöperation of her citizens, she also is given more work to do, with an extra expenditure of energy and money. This last is like a boomerang; it comes right back to the citizen. The more work he gives the city to do the more taxes he has to pay. There are a million mothers like John Green's mother, who within their homes appreciate what cleaning means. Sometimes a great many of these mothers, and in addition, fathers, brothers, and sisters, once they leave the home, fail to realize that the city is also a housekeeper. The things they would not do at home for fear of spoiling its appearance, they do on the streets, in public places, and in the parks of the city.

Keep Your City Clean

If every member of the city's great family would try to transfer the careful habits he acquires in his private home to his great public home, namely, the streets and other public places, the city would appreciate this aid and he, in return, would be the chief beneficiary in knowing that he lives in a clean, healthful community which he has helped to keep sanitary by his cooperation and care.

If every school-child would commit to memory some of the following simple rules and, in turn, spread them to the members of his family and neighborhood, he would be rendering a valuable service to the city.

1. Do not throw any rubbish, litter, paper, fruit skins, or waste of any kind upon the sidewalks or into the streets.
2. Do not sweep anything except dust from the sidewalks into the streets.
3. Do not distribute handbills or circulars upon the streets.
4. Do not put your ashes or garbage in anything except a metal can.
5. Do not put out garbage cans without a tight-fitting cover.

6. Do not fill garbage or ash cans within more than four inches of the top.
7. Do not put out paper and light refuse unless tied in bundles or packed.
8. Do not spit upon any sidewalk, the floor of any hallway, or place used by the public, or on the floor of any public conveyance.

CHAPTER V

REGULATION OF WORK

BY

Stuyvesant High School

Aims of This Chapter

In the previous chapters we have seen that the city, state, and national governments perform many services for us that we could not individually perform for ourselves. The regulation of work furnishes another example of government acting as the agent of the citizens to promote their welfare. We shall here make a brief survey of the army of workers in New York, and see how they are protected in their various occupations.

Need for Protection of Workers

The regulation of labor is not a new thing in the history of the world. It has been carried on by almost all governments since the earliest times. But in the past, such regulations were often oppressive to the workers, while modern regulations emphasize the rights of workers, and aim to protect them from profiteering employers. Today, no employer could compel people to work for 12 or 14 hours a day, in unsanitary surroundings, without fire protection and guards on dangerous machinery, or employ women and children in mines. If it were possible to do so, the results to the workers would be more sickness and accidents, a higher death-rate, greater illiteracy, and to the industries, less production. It seems hard to imagine a time when the state did not prevent these evils. Yet, there was such a time, and since then, a great bulwark of labor legislation has been raised.

History of Labor Laws

In order to understand the origin and growth of this protection, you should read an account of the Industrial Revolution in English history and American history. Beginning in Eng-

land, toward the end of the eighteenth century, it brought about a change from the "domestic system" to the "factory system" of production, with an accompanying change in the living and working conditions of the people. Power-driven machinery, hitherto undreamed of, was the key to a new and marvelous world. At first, owners of new machines were free to employ on their own terms, men, women, and children.

Industrial Revolution

An Automobile Factory.

Here was a new situation for which no laws existed. When they were first proposed in Parliament, objection came from short-sighted men who maintained that government regulation would ruin industry by making it unprofitable. But eventually, laws were passed limiting the rights of factory and mine owners, and guarding the health and safety of workers. Later, when the United States began manufacturing in the new way, similar regulations had to be made. Congress had no power to regulate labor within the separate states, so each state made its

own code as the need for it arose. For this reason, American labor laws differ greatly in different parts of the country, depending on the prevailing types of industry in each state, and the intelligence and conscience of its citizens.

Factory System

The factory system is the organization of workers in a shop to produce, with labor-saving machinery, the greatest possible number of articles in a given time, at the least possible cost. Just as a baseball team is organized with each man in a given position to play his particular part for the success of the team, so the factory workers have a minute division of labor. Each performs one operation, repeating it throughout the week, gaining skill and speed in the use of his machine. He may be a "week worker" having a fixed weekly wage, or a "piece worker" paid at a fixed rate for the number of pieces of work he has produced during the week. This complicated system needs expert managers to direct it. Let us study the factory, closely, in connection with a typical New York industry.

Industries of New York

We are told that our city is the chief industrial center of the world today. It leads in the production of more than ten important classes of manufactured goods, having over 47,000 factories employing 850,000 persons, and producing more than 10 percent of the manufactures of the United States. First on the list is the clothing industry, employing 256,900 persons. They make 50 per cent of all the clothing of the country, 70 per cent of all women's wear, and 66 per cent of all millinery, furs, and laces produced in this country. A small proportion of the total is "custom work," made to order by tailors and dressmakers who are located in all parts of the city. "Ready to wear" garments are made by the thousand in the factories of lower Manhattan, either down on the East Side in the older loft buildings and sweatshops, or further uptown in the new center of the industry, west of Sixth Avenue, from Thirty-third to Thirty-eighth streets.

Clothing Industry

A Model Industry

On a trip through a modern loft building like the "Garment Center," you would see airy, well-heated lofts, the sunlight en-

tering through many windows; artificial lighting by an indirect system to protect the workers' eyes; electrically-operated sewing-machines, arranged in rows with aisles between, leading to the fire exits; a metal container beside each worker for his finished work; fire extinguishers, hose, standpipe, and an automatic sprinkler system; posters on the walls displaying sections of the labor and fire laws. You would see, too, that cutting, seaming, pressing, etc., were done by different workers.

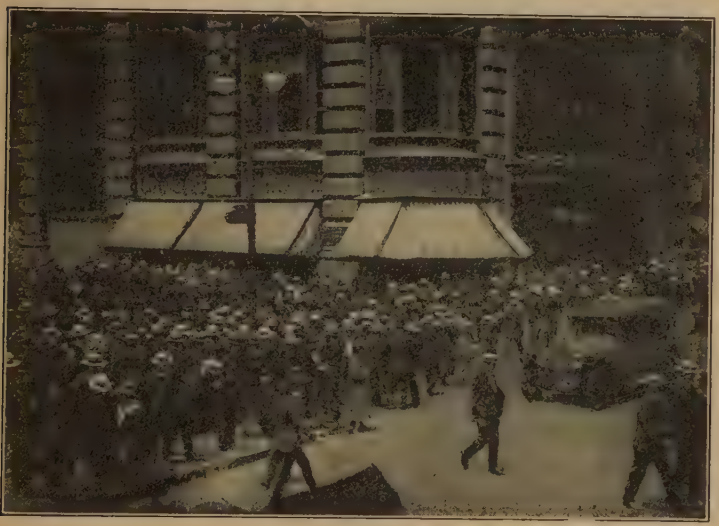


Photo by Brown Bros.

NOON HOUR IN THE CLOTHING CENTER, NEW YORK CITY.

Sweat Shop

Quite a contrast to this structure is the small factory or contractor's shop of the lower East Side, which may be located in an old dwelling house, past which the elevated trains run close to the windows. Within, the rooms present a dingy, dirty appearance. They are more crowded, and the work finished and unfinished, seems to take up a great deal of space. Lighting is poor, and ventilation entirely neglected. This old building is, of course, not fireproof, but the owner has complied with the

minimum requirements of the law by placing additional fire-escapes and exits where they are needed. There are, too, many factories that are between these two extremes, in which conditions may be called "fair."

Homework

Many factories find it convenient and profitable to send out some of their work to be finished. Here, the contractor is important. He takes out piles of work to persons in the neighboring tenements and brings them back completed. Sewing in linings, putting on buttons, pulling out bastings, being done by hand, would, if centered in the factory, increase the cost of production through additional rent and lighting bills, as well as through the cost of needles and thread used by the homeworker. The latter is paid on a very low scale at piece work rates.

Homework may be the means of furnishing a small income to an old person or an invalid, to a mother who cannot leave her children during the day, or to the factory worker who increases his earnings at night. But these advantages are frequently offset by bad conditions in the home, which are suggested by the homework regulations given hereafter. Homework is used extensively in other industries, too, such as the making of artificial flowers, umbrellas, veiling, leather goods, and various novelties; and the homeworker may use machines for sewing, knitting, or embroidery.

Although manufacturing is very important, we must realize that there are thousands of workers in our city engaged in other pursuits. Some work on the construction of streets, tunnels, subways, ships, and buildings; others are employed in the operation of transit lines, elevators, power-houses, printing-presses, and telephones. There are, too, hosts of commercial workers, the "white collar" class, including clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, wholesale and retail salesmen. Lastly, there are the professional classes — doctors, lawyers, architects, teachers, etc. The work of each of these groups is regulated in one way or another. We shall now see that although the

Other Industries

federal government and the City of New York share responsibility to some extent, it is the State of New York that regulates most of the work done within its boundaries.

Public Regulation

At the Grand Central and the Pennsylvania stations, you may see engineers who have brought in trains from Chicago or Washington. They have passed through many states, so they cannot be subject to the labor laws of any one state. Federal

Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.

WHEN THE HOME BECOMES A FACTORY.

laws provide for most railroad workers an eight-hour day. Any excess of time over the eight hours is paid for at a higher rate, as overtime. Wage rates and special working conditions are drawn up by the "Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers" and the companies.

Railroad Workers

At the Chelsea piers, you may find vessels from all over the world. The crews of vessels of "foreign registry" (chartered by foreign governments) are entirely outside the pale of Ameri-

can laws. But ships of American registry are subject to federal laws. Special provisions are made for crews of Shipping Board vessels. These laws aim to better the working conditions of seamen, and to make the work more attractive to American youth, by offering better food and living quarters, and paying higher wages than foreign vessels offer. This means, of course, that American owners must pay more to operate their vessels than do their foreign competitors. Marine workers within the port of New York, pilots and engineers of harbor craft, also come under federal laws.

American Seamen

In addition to this regulation of private commercial companies, the United States as an employer, has to regulate the work of a large force of clerks and technical men in its many departments. They are appointed after having passed Federal Civil Service Examinations. Congress provides a graduated wage scale, and, for most of them, an eight-hour day. The letter-carrier on your block can tell you about the special rules that apply to his department. Finally, some of the immigration laws indirectly affect labor. No one may bring laborers to the United States under contract to work. (For the Federal Child Labor Law see page 93.)

By the City of New York

Turning to the municipal government, we find that there is little direct regulation of labor by New York City. Licenses are granted by the City to enter certain occupations. The Examining Board of Plumbers licenses plumbers after examination to prove their fitness. Electricians and motion picture operators are licensed by the Bureau of Gas and Electricity after passing a qualifying test. Food handlers like bakers, butchers, cooks, etc., must pass a physical examination, and receive a certificate of health from the Health Department.

Municipal Civil Service

The city, like the national government, is an employer. Skilled laborers, clerks, inspectors, technical workers, doctors, teachers, policemen, and firemen are on the payrolls of various city departments. For most of these, the Municipal Civil Service Commission sets examinations, and the departments

concerned regulate the salaries paid. With some exceptions, the eight-hour day is the rule in the city service.

By the State of New York

In many cases, the city acts as the agent of the state. The Bureau of Standards and Appeals, the Fire Department, and Health Department are responsible for enforcing some sections of the Labor Law within the city. The two former have authority over all factories with regard to fire hazards, means of escape, fire drills. The Health Department enforces sanitary laws in factories and inspects tenements before homework licenses are granted. (See page 130.)

State Department of Labor

The authority to act for the state in these cases is given to the local authorities by the State Labor Law which is in force throughout the state, and includes all laws passed by the New York State Legislature concerning labor. There is a State Department of Labor, at the head of which is the Industrial Commissioner and the Industrial Board of three members, all of whom are appointed by the Governor. The Commissioner enforces the law, and appoints inspectors and assistants to aid him in this work. The Board (1) makes rules supplementary to the Labor Law, (2) settles industrial disputes, and (3) determines Workmen's Compensation claims. An office is maintained by the Commissioner and Board in this City at 124 West Twenty-eighth Street, Manhattan.

In the following paragraphs in which a summary of the Labor Law is given, it will be seen that some of its provisions are rather general in character. Any of these may be modified or amplified by the Board if, after a hearing, the change proposed, seems necessary. It may even allow variations in individual cases, if the spirit of the law is observed. All its decisions have the force of law and are grouped together in the Industrial Code.

State Labor Law

The provisions of the Labor Law apply to the following:

Hours of Work. — An eight-hour day and one day of rest in seven is provided for employees in stores, factories, and public work. For certain occupations, such as street car and railroad

operation, and others mentioned in the law, a ten-hour day is the minimum.

Fire Regulations

Physical Condition of Factories. — Fire protection is secured by these laws: All new factories more than four stories in height, must have fireproof construction. There must be, at least, two separate means of exit, by interior or exterior inclosed stairways. All stairways must be of fireproof material, and all doors must open outwardly. All doors and windows must be kept unlocked during the day. Stairways and exits must be kept free from obstructions. Exits must be marked with signs. A fire alarm system must be installed, and monthly fire drills held. Fireproof receptacles are to be provided for waste. Gas jets and lights must be inclosed. Smoking is generally prohibited. Automatic sprinklers are required in factories over seven stories high, and if wooden floors are used in the building.

Sanitation

Sanitation. — Every part of a factory building, especially the plumbing, is to be kept clean and in proper repair. Clean drinking water must be supplied, and the use of the common drinking cup is prohibited. Workrooms must be heated, ventilated, and supplied with suction devices to remove gases, fibers, etc., if the character of the work requires them. The number of workers who may be employed is limited by the size of the room, so that each person shall have at least 250 cubic feet of air during the day, and 400 cubic feet at night.

Accident Prevention

Prevention of Accidents. — Elevators and machinery having fly-wheels and moving belts must be properly guarded and equipped with safety devices. A first aid kit must be provided in each factory. Proper lighting of halls and stairways must be provided, and artificial lighting in workrooms must be arranged in a way that will not cause a strain on the worker's eyes.

Homework

Homework. — A factory owner must get a permit from the Commissioner in order to give out work. The owner of a tenement must get a license from the Commissioner to permit any

manufacturing in his building. A license is not granted unless the tenement is clean and the rooms well ventilated as shown by the records of the Health Department, and on an inspection by the Department of Labor. Persons doing home-work must be free from contagious or communicable diseases. No child labor is allowed in the tenements and the following articles cannot be manufactured: articles of food, dolls, and infants' or children's clothing. An inspection is made once every six months by the Labor Department.

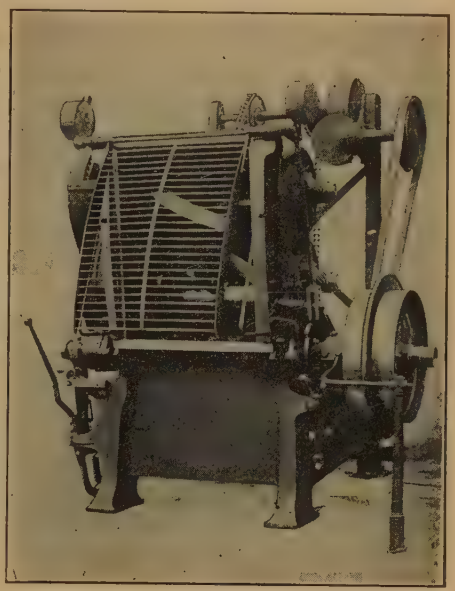


Photo by Brown Bros.

A Protected Machine.

Stores

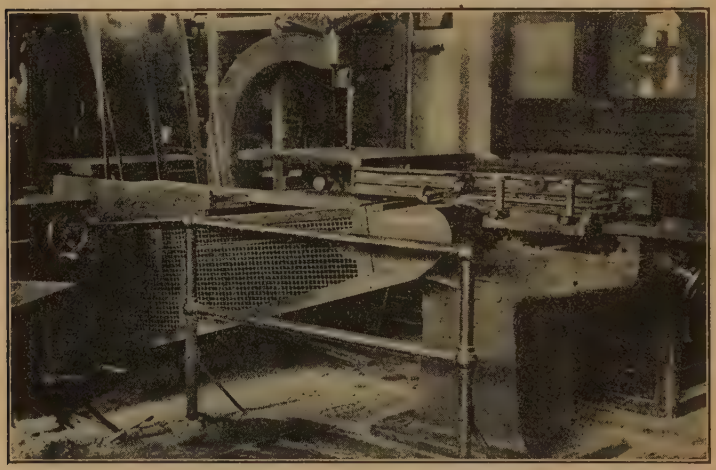
Regulations for stores and mercantile establishments regarding the safety and comfort of workers are similar to those required in factories. All plumbing must be kept in sanitary condition. Drinking water and, in some cases, lunchrooms, must be provided.

Regulation For Special Occupations

For certain kinds of work, special regulations are necessary. (1) In building construction, safe scaffolding must be provided. (2) In tunnels, mines, and blasting operations, safe hoisting devices and timbering of underground passages is required. (3) Workers in compressed air have an unusually dangerous occupation, and many of them pay with their lives the cost of our great transportation improvements. For this work the men must pass a physical test. They may work no more than eight

Compressed Air

hours a day in two or more periods with an interval depending on the pressure. They must pass from the compressed air to normal pressure, gradually. At least two pipes in perfect working condition must connect with the working chamber and a safe ladder must be placed in each shaft. The pressure must be carefully gauged. A doctor and a nurse with medical and surgical supplies must be kept in constant attendance. (4) The health of those who work at the manufacture of mattresses is protected by providing that no second-hand material may be used unless it has been thoroughly sterilized. (5) To protect window cleaners, safety belts that can be fastened to the sides of windows must be provided, and the cleaner is forbidden to pass from window to window on the outside. .



Courtesy of the Stuyvesant Camera Club

GUARDED JOINTER, STUYVESANT SHOPS.

The posting of laws for the information of workers in factories, stores, etc., is required. Posters containing the most important provisions of the laws applying to the particular kind of work are displayed.

The Workmen's Compensation Law is not part of the Labor

Law, but is carried out by the Industrial Commissioner and Industrial Board. It provides a means of support for an employee who is disabled or partially disabled, and adequate treatment of his injury. Thus, it is beneficial to him, and to his family, who might otherwise be in great want, if deprived of their only means of support. Compensation is the money allowance for injuries or death incurred by employees at their work. The law originally applied only to those working at hazardous occupations, but it has been amended to include (1) all employees of a company hiring regularly at least four manual workers and (2) sufferers from occupational diseases. It does not apply to domestic servants and certain groups of municipal employees.

Workman's Compensation

Groups Included

An employer must insure his workers in either the State Insurance Fund or a private insurance company, furnish medical and surgical care to injured workmen, and report to the Commissioner all cases of accidents to his employees within ten days after their occurrence. If the injury keeps the employee from his work for seven days or more, compensation begins. He is paid two thirds of his weekly wage (not less than $8 or more than $20), and the payments continue as long as he is incapacitated. There is a fixed scale of compensation for various injuries. The employee must ask for compensation within thirty days of receiving his injury, and must be examined by a physician. In case of death, compensation is paid to dependents and funeral expenses of $100 are provided. Any excess of wages over $125 a month is not taken into account in computing compensation.

Insurance

Rates

Before this law was passed, injured workers had to bring suit in court to receive damages under the Employers' Liability Act. But this was not satisfactory, as the employer might maintain that he had provided all required safety devices and was, therefore, in no way responsible for the employee's injury. He could then be relieved of the cost, if he proved that the injured man or a fellow workman had been careless or negligent. All accidents are now compensable, even if the worker

Good Results

is to blame, (unless intoxication is the cause), on the theory that he suffers enough in bearing the injury, without consequent loss of wages and poverty for himself and his family. One of the good results of this law is the tendency towards a decrease in the number of accidents since its passage. It is decidedly to the advantage of the employer to have as few accidents as possible in his factory, as the insurance companies determine the rate charged for a policy by the number of accidents that have occurred in the past few years. Few accidents are taken as an indication that safety devices and good working conditions are provided.

Finally, we must mention two groups of workers who are given special protection under the Labor Law, — children and women.

Child and Woman Labor

Although modern industry has meant progress in many lines of activity, it has also had its menacing features. Of these, child labor is one of the most apparent. In the United States, according to the figures of the 1920 census, one out of every twelve children between the ages of ten and fifteen years was gainfully employed. It is difficult to estimate the number of child laborers there are under ten years of age, because no official count has been made. Hundreds as young as five years are found working in sugar, beet, onion, and cotton fields.

Child Health Loss

Who pays the most for child labor, the child, the parents, or the community? First of all, the child pays. He pays in health loss. Deprived of fresh air and exercise, child laborers soon become stooped and stunted in growth. Continuous application to factory and homework results in weakened eyesight. Children who work in street occupations suffer. Out of two hundred newsboys examined in New York City recently, three fourths of them had one disease or more. The toll of children injured in factory accidents is large. Children, because of a muscular control inferior to that of adults, fall prey to the dangers of machinery. Children in agriculture — in the cotton, tobacco, and beet industries, have long weary days of back-

bending and muscle straining under a burning sun, resulting often in physical exhaustion.

The child laborer pays in terms of education. There are in the country approximately 1,250,000 children under sixteen years of age who have left school permanently, most of them to go to work, and there are several thousand more who are registered in school, but are working outside at tasks that are interfering with regular attendance, and resulting in lassitude and

Education Loss

Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.

BEADING A GOWN.

inefficiency in the classroom During the four years, from twelve to fifteen inclusive, fifty per cent of our school children in the United States finish the grammar grades, and only eight per cent finish high school. A large percentage of child laborers, then, are equipped for life with only the barest rudiments of learning. Exhausted by monotonous, profitless tasks, they rarely have the time or inclination to continue their studies. Moreover, the scanty education they have received, fits them only for the ranks of unskilled and underpaid workers.

Moral Loss

The cost to the child in happiness and moral loss is great. For natural enjoyment in play and healthful activity, the working child substitutes unhealthful excitement. The newsboy, for instance, often smokes cigarettes and plays crap when business is not brisk. Juvenile delinquency is associated with employment, chiefly because the control of parents over the working child is usually very weak. According to Mabel Ellis in "Juvenile Delinquency in Manhattan," the working children contribute four times their share to the ranks of juvenile delinquency.

Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.

YOUTHFUL COTTON PICKERS.

Cost of Child Labor to Society

The cost of child labor to society is incalculable. It is not only through the lowered power, the stunting, and the moral deterioration of its individual members, that society loses, but in actual expense, in terms of poorhouses, hospitals, police courts, and jails necessary for the dependents and degenerates often created by premature employment. Worse still, the tone of the country's citizenship is lowered. How can adults, lacking an education, and worn out by a steady grind of labor

since they were children, have the necessary ambition to become active citizens striving eagerly for their nation's and community's welfare?

Regulation of Child Labor a State Right

Regulation of child labor is a state, rather than a federal right. On the whole, the states have not performed their duty in this regard. Only seventeen states have effective laws actually enforced. Most states have no effective street trade regulations. Child labor almost from babyhood is common in homes doing factory work in big cities and remote towns. Only three states have attempted regulations. Agriculture and domestic service are practically unregulated. While most states have a fourteen-year age limit, the failure of state laws to check the widespread exploitation of children is due to numerous exemptions permitted and to lack of enforcement.

Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.

GIRL CUTTING OFF BEET LEAVES WITH DANGEROUS KNIFE.

Compulsory Education Law

New York State restricts and controls child labor through the enforcement of the Compulsory Education Law and the Child Labor Law. According to the former, all children between the ages of seven and fourteen years of age in proper physical and mental condition to attend school, must attend as many days as the school is in session. In places in New

York State under 4,500 population, the compulsory attendance minimum age is eight years. Children between fourteen and sixteen years of age must attend school unless they have been granted employment certificates. In New York City, children between the ages of fourteen and eighteen who are not in regular day attendance at school or who are lawfully employed must attend a part-time or continuation school, unless they have completed an approved four year high school course. If temporarily out of regular employment, such children must attend a continuation school for not less than twenty hours a week.

Children's Occupations

The Child Labor Law of New York State deals chiefly with types of employment prohibited to children, and hours of labor. Children under fourteen years of age cannot be employed in any business or service, with the exception of selling or delivering newspapers, farm service, motion picture and stage work. Children who are fourteen or fifteen years of age may not work without an employment certificate in any factory, store, business or telegraph office, hotel, restaurant, apartment house, bowling alley, barber shop, bootblacking establishment, or in the distribution or transmission of merchandise or messages. No children under sixteen years of age may be employed in dangerous occupations. Concerning hours of labor, the law states that for children fourteen or fifteen years of age, factory work is forbidden before 8 A.M. or after 5 P.M. of any day, or for more than eight hours daily or more than six days in any week. In mercantile establishments, the closing hour is 6 P.M. For girls, sixteen years of age and over, and boys between the ages of sixteen and eighteen, factory work is forbidden for more than nine hours daily, or more than six days weekly; or for boys between midnight and 4 A.M. and for girls between 10 P.M. and 6 A.M. For girls sixteen years of age and over, in mercantile employment, work is forbidden for more than nine hours daily or more than six days weekly or between 10 P.M. and 7 A.M.

Children's Hours

The administration of the foregoing laws varies according to the occupation and place of employment. In factories and mer-

cantile establishments located in the cities of New York State, the laws are enforced by the State Department of Labor and by attendance officers. In similar establishments in New York State not located in cities, the laws are enforced by local Boards of Health and by attendance officers. To enforce the Compulsory Education Law, New York City has a Bureau of Attendance whose duties in this regard are under the supervision of the State Department of Education.

How These Laws Are Enforced in New York State

In the past, the national government was indirectly able to control child labor. The first Federal Child Labor Act was

Government Control in the Past

Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.

THE STRAIN OF PULLING BEETS.

passed in 1917, based on the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce. This act was declared unconstitutional in 1918 by the United States Supreme Court. In 1919, a second Federal Child Labor Act was enacted. This law was intended to regulate the employment of children in any mill, cannery, workshop, factory, or manufacturing establishment, under the age of fourteen, or in any mine or quarry under sixteen years, by imposing an excise tax of ten per cent upon all net annual profits of those employing such labor. In May, 1922, the United States Supreme Court also declared this act unconsti-

tutional. It was attacked on the ground that it attempted to regulate a function that belonged to the state alone, in direct violation of the Federal Constitution and the Tenth Amendment.

Present Government Control

Since the Supreme Court of the United States has twice ruled a Federal Child Labor Act unconstitutional, public spirited organizations throughout the country are striving for child labor legislation in the form of an amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The National Child Labor Committee, whose headquarters are in our city, has been fighting for effective child labor legislation since 1904 and is now busily engineering a campaign for the desired amendment. But this Committee and all organizations need the active coöperation of every citizen to transform this aim into an accomplished fact.

Woman Labor in the United States

Woman labor is another phase of modern industrialism. Some of its aspects are promising: others are far from ideal. The old-fashioned slogan, "Woman's place is in the home," seems to have been shattered by census figures. Of the 41,609,192 persons gainfully employed in the United States in 1920, 33,059,793 were males and 8,549,399 were females. One woman out of every five in the United States works and earns money. New York State ranks first in regard to the number of persons employed. Out of its population of 8,402,786 who are ten years of age and over, 54 per cent or 4,504,791, are gainfully occupied. Of this group, 25 per cent are women. This is twice the number of women gainfully employed in Pennsylvania, the state that ranks second in population.

What are the occupations at which women work? Narrowing the field down to New York State, a study of the following table prepared by the New York State Department of Labor may prove interesting.

NUMBER OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED PERSONS IN NEW YORK STATE, 1920

	Number	Per Cent
All occupations		
Men	3,367,907	74.79
Women	1,135,246	25.21
Total	4,503,153	100.00
1. Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry		
Men	305,505	97.06
Women	9,269	2.94
Total	314,774	100.00
2. Extraction of minerals		
Men	7,435	98.49
Women	114	1.51
Total	7,549	100.00
3. Manufacturing and mechanical industries		
Men	1,406,002	80.02
Women	351,104	19.98
Total	1,757,106	100.00
4. Transportation		
Men	370,153	91.71
Women	33,422	8.29
Total	403,575	100.00
5. Trade		
Men	505,254	85.44
Women	86,079	14.56
Total	591,333	100.00
6. Public service (not elsewhere classified)		
Men	98,691	98.32
Women	1,684	1.68
Total	100,375	100.00

NUMBER OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED PERSONS IN NEW YORK STATE, 1920 (*Continued*)

	Number	Per Cent
7. Professional service		
Men	162,196	56.18
Women	126,523	43.82
Total	288,719	100.00
8. Domestic and personal service		
Men	209,493	44.29
Women	263,463	55.71
Total	472,956	100.00
9. Clerical occupations		
Men	303,178	53.49
Women	263,588	46.51
Total	566,766	100.00

Wages of Women

What is the situation in regard to women's wages? In some occupations they are extremely low. For instance, in New York in 1919, the high wage year, inspectors in paper box factories received $9.13 a week; packers in confectionery factories received $9.15, wrappers $9.25; girls in silk factories received $10.10; in furniture factories $11.88; in overall factories $12.01; in men's clothing factories $14.55; in cigar factories $10.58. Wages, such as these, do not go far in meeting the high cost of living. A New York State Minimum Wage Law to alter the situation has been agitated for some time. The Consumers' League of New York State and the Consumers' League of New York City were working for a law of this type. If this law had been passed, it would have caused a wage adjuster to be appointed by the Governor, who through investigation and conferences, would have set a just wage based on actual cost of living conditions and value of labor, below which rate, no employer could go. Minimum wage laws have been passed in Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Kansas, Massachu-

Minimum Wage Law

setts, Minnesota, North Dakota, District of Columbia, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin. The wages set in these states vary from $11 a week in Arkansas to $16.50 in the District of Columbia.

Supreme Court and Minimum Wage Law

Minimum wage legislation seems doomed, however, for on April 9, 1923, in a sweeping decision, the Supreme Court of the United States declared the minimum wage law in the District

Photo by Brown Bros.

WOMEN WORKING IN A GARMENT FACTORY.

of Columbia unconstitutional, and by implication threw into the discard similar laws in various states. The decision reaches 12,500 women and minor children in the District, and the number of persons in industry in the various states can be only estimated. While no direct references were made to minimum wage laws in other states, counsel involved agreed that if the law is invalid as applied to the District of Columbia, the respective enactments on the subject by legislatures are also unconstitutional.

Hours of Women in Industry

Of the laws passed by New York State relating to women in industry, perhaps those concerning hours of labor need our immediate attention most, because of the present legislative agitation about them. The general rule regarding women's hours is a nine-hour day and a six-day week.

There are exceptions to this rule, however. In a factory, women over sixteen years of age may be employed ten hours a day, if the total weekly hours do not exceed fifty-four. In a mercantile establishment, women over sixteen years of age may be employed more than nine hours one day a week, if the total weekly hours do not exceed fifty-four. Then too, there are many working women to whom the law does not apply. There are no regulations under the labor law for women in the following kinds of work: professional and office work, work in the theaters, in hotels, on farms, domestic service, work in a garage, telegraphy, telephony, and interstate commerce.

While it is therefore apparent that there is much room for improvement in regard to conditions of child labor and woman labor, it is a hopeful indication to realize that many of our citizens are keenly alive to the evils, and are trying to eradicate them.

Regulations by Unions

One of the important factors in bringing about the passage of such beneficial laws as we have been considering, is the labor union. A union is an association of workers in the same trade, which has for its object, the improvement of working conditions in the trade, and the maintenance of a satisfactory scale of wages. It is a private association, not regulated by the state. The "locals" unite, forming sectional or national groups in each trade; and a combination of these larger groups from many industries forms the American Federation of Labor, which includes about 34,000 locals.

Collective Bargaining

The strength of the unions lies in the principle of "collective bargaining." To illustrate this, suppose Jenkins, a printer, goes to his employer and says that he will not work in his shop any longer unless he is given an increase in wages. If there is no

scarcity of labor, the employer will probably refuse the increase, and fill his place with another printer willing to work at the wage offered. But if Jenkins were a union member, he would never make his demand as an individual. The situation would be discussed at a meeting of the printers' local, a vote would be taken, and a statement of demands drawn up. The representative of the unions would present this to the employer,

Photo by Brown Bros.

PATTERN CUTTERS IN A CLOTHING FACTORY.
These men work under favorable conditions.

and since the demand came from the whole group, it would have to be considered. If it were refused, the union might vote to call a strike at a definite time and so notify the employer.

The Strike

A well-organized strike may mean that hundreds of workers are idle, production is greatly reduced, and the public at large suffers from the loss of the commodity involved. The union then aids the worker by paying him a sum of money weekly, from its treasury; but when this is exhausted, he may suffer

greatly, and be forced to take some temporary work. A sympathetic strike may be called by other unions directly or indirectly connected with the first. As a means of retaliation,

Lockout

the owner of the plant may decide on a "lockout," that is, he may close the shop, and keep it closed for a long period. Having other sources of income, he can stand the loss of profits much better than the men can stand the loss of wages. Or the owner may try to run his plant with non-union labor, strike-breakers, or "scabs." This, too, will cause waste and loss, as new people must be trained, and it is particularly dangerous in a strike of railroad or street-car employees. The unions try to prevent

Pickets

the success of this move in various ways. "Pickets" are assigned to patrol the streets around the shop, displaying large signs stating their grievances and demands. As an appeal to public opinion, picketing may be effective, if carried on in an orderly way. But when the pickets collect groups to discuss these things, or try by force to prevent strike-breakers from doing their work, then trouble with the police invariably occurs.

Open Shop

One of the issues most frequently raised in labor disputes today, is whether the employer shall keep an "open shop" and hire union and non-union workers, or a "closed shop" and hire only union labor. In the latter, all the workers stand together, obey the order if the union calls a strike, and, for this reason, may be more successful in their negotiations with employers. On the other hand, when a strike occurs, the non-union workmen will remain and make it possible for the owner to continue operation with the aid of other strike-breakers. Since organized labor looks upon the strike as its most powerful weapon, it is anxious to establish the closed shop everywhere.

Injunction

Strikes sometimes drag along for weeks or months. To end a strike, an injunction is sometimes resorted to. This is a court order which states that certain acts are against the public welfare at that particular time, and then forbids these acts. Any one who commits one of the acts mentioned is disobeying the court's order and may be punished for contempt of court. An

injunction is sometimes secured against striking men by an employer who can prove that violence and destruction of property are the result of their activities. A notable example of this use of the injunction occurred in September 1922 in connection with the Railroad Shopmen's Strike, when Attorney-General Daugherty secured an injunction restraining all the usual activities of strikers, on the ground that they were interfering with interstate transportation. This method is unsatisfactory, because it does not settle any issues, and it is bitterly opposed by the workers, because they say it deprives them of their right to strike.

Arbitration

Strikes are more often settled by compromises in which each side gives in a little. Arbitration or conciliation may be proposed by any public official, or the State Industrial Commissioner. He may act as chairman, appoint a committee representative of labor, the employers, and the public, and hold hearings. After hearing both sides, they make what seems to them a fair judgment, called an "award." If the settlement is just, it may be accepted by both sides and end the strike. If so, a new agreement is signed, which is to continue in force for a definite period. But the award is not binding and does not have to be accepted. Many people argue that arbitration by a responsible and fair committee should be made compulsory in settling all industrial disputes. Labor opposes this on the ground that it would in effect destroy the strike as a weapon. Employers and the public are inclined to favor it. In Kansas, an industrial court was established in 1921 to carry out the principle of compulsory arbitration.

Good Results of Unions

In the past, the unions have done much good in securing for industrial workers, protection of health, higher wages, and shorter working hours. They have been effective in raising the standard of living of American workmen. One of the most important things they do is to put a label on every article manufactured in union shops, which indicates that it has been made under satisfactory working conditions.

Labor Education

At the present time, they are extending their beneficial influence in new ways. Schools and colleges have been organized for their members, which supplement the work of the public educational system. They meet the problems of adult education by adopting a very broad course to meet the particular needs of each student. As there are many illiterate foreigners, especially in the unions of the eastern cities, this is one of the

A Rest Room for Women Workers.
Many of the women take advantage of this room during the lunch hour.

most useful tasks that these associations could engage in. It will probably produce a more intelligent and more responsible type of leadership in the future.

Labor Bank

One of the recent activities of a group of trade unions in New York City has been to open a bank. Its relatively small capital has been furnished not by men of wealth, but by one of the garment-workers' associations. This will mean that the profits accruing from the banking business will benefit labor.

In spite of these things, however, serious objections can be raised by the public in general to some of the methods and practices of the unions. The regulation of the work of the members is so minute and so strict that they may be required to limit their daily production to an average amount. Piece work rates may be gauged by what the fastest workers can produce daily. If the average production ranges from 300 to 500 pieces a day, the rate may be fixed at $1 a hundred. Then, the slow worker makes $3 a day and others make more in proportion as they produce more. But if some workers can produce 600 pieces daily, the wages of $6 a day may seem to be too high, and the rate may be cut to 80 cents a hundred. To prevent such a wage cut, the union leaders may limit production in this shop to 500 pieces a day. This is one way in which they explain limitation.

Objections to Unions

Limiting Production

Labor leaders may use their influence and authority in the unions to further the interest of one or more employers and to injure others. They may themselves be subject to bribery. An investigation of the building trades recently showed that labor leaders are not always working in the interests of the laborers. In time of strike they may encourage violence and attacks on the property of employers, which may lead to the death or injury of strike-breakers. Of course, many strikes are very peacably conducted, and the responsible labor leaders see that violence injures the cause of labor and do all they can to discourage it. They are not always able to control mob spirit, however, and rioting may become serious if a large number of workers are on strike.

"Sabotage" is the name given to a kind of vandalism often used as a weapon against an uncompromising employer. His cars, or buildings, or machines, may be wilfully destroyed. In our city, it is possible to get a large number of policemen to quell riots of this kind. The efficient "Reserves" are able to cope with the situation and make the streets safe for traffic. During a recent milk strike, it was necessary to have a policeman ac-

Sabotage

company the drivers of all the wagons that left the dairy companies to deliver milk; and in a street car strike, policemen rode with motormen and conductors on all cars. But in rural communities, where the police force is small, it may become necessary to call out the State Police or the State Militia in order to suppress rioting. This often happens in mining towns, and in some cases, United States troops are placed in charge of the district.

Violence

After all, the most important thing to consider is the loss of human life, and both the union leaders and the employers often show very little regard for this consideration. A shocking example of strikers' violence was the massacre of strike-breaking coal miners at Herrin, Illinois, in June, 1922. Here we have the most unfortunate phase of industrial disputes. Employees who believe they are working under intolerable conditions will risk everything, even their lives, and those of their fellow citizens, to obtain their demands. Certainly, some better way of arriving at settlements must be found.

Employers' Associations

Employers, too, form organizations that generally have for their object, the protection of their interests. They may fix selling prices, publish trade papers, influence legislation, or obtain new markets by advertising or sales campaigns. One of the most interesting activities of such a group is the construction of a great coöperative loft-building, the "Garment Center," at Seventh Avenue and Thirty-eighth Street, New York City. The majority of garment manufacturers coöperated with the City Government in voluntarily conforming to the Zone Act. They removed their factories from the Fifth Avenue retail shopping district, and most manufacturers in this industry are now confined to a district bounded by Thirty-third and Thirty-eighth streets, from Sixth to Eighth avenues. It is convenient to the retail shopping center, and the smaller shops are encouraged to locate here, where new loft-buildings are rapidly appearing. This may be the means eventually of wiping out the old sweat shops.

There are, too, some interesting examples of coöperation between the employers' associations and the unions. One of these is the Joint Board for Sanitary Control. This represents employers, the workers, and the public, and aims to enforce high standards of sanitation, safety, and fire-protection in the industries under its control. It supervises 3,800 factories of the garment industries and one of its accomplishments has been to make a survey of these factories and grade them as "A," "B," or "C," according to the working conditions discovered. An organization of this kind does a great service in supplementing the work of the state factory inspectors. The number of these is always limited and in spite of their best efforts, many violations may not be discovered.

Individual employers or companies may do much to break up the antagonism that generally exists between capital and labor. Voluntary increases in wages, bonuses, and profit-sharing schemes are helpful in some cases. The greatest factor in bringing about harmony, however, is admitting labor to a share in the management of industries. This is the claim of labor. A notable example of a garment manufacturer in New York City suggests itself. He has recently retired and sold out his business to the workers who have had a large share in its management previously. They will pay him gradually from the profits of the factory, and then own the business coöperatively. Here again, labor management will be tested, as in the case of the labor bank.

As high school students you have yet to meet the problems we have been discussing. But they lie just ahead of you, and in a few short years you may be concerned with them directly, as employers or employees. Reading and discussing them with others, while you are still in school, will prepare you to make your decisions later. Try to get as many different viewpoints as you can. Much valuable information may be found in the daily newspapers.

At the present time, however, you are concerned directly as

Reasons for Your Interest

consumers. You want to feel sure that your clothing was not finished in a tenement in which there was contagious disease or filthy conditions. This is, to be sure, a purely selfish interest. From an unselfish point of view, are you not equally interested in knowing that your sporting goods were made in a factory in which good working conditions prevailed; or that the men who are working in the new tunnels and subways of our city are adequately protected against the inevitable risks of their work? If you are indifferent to the welfare of these people, how can you use these means of transportation contentedly, or get much pleasure from the use of your possessions? There is an association here in the city which has for its object the spread of information about working conditions in various industries.

Consumers' League

When you find the "Consumers' League" label on an article, it tells you, as does the union label, that the article was made under satisfactory working conditions — not by child labor, and not in a sweatshop. You can easily see that to be well-informed, and to form your own opinions about industrial conditions is a large part of good citizenship. Be sure that your opinions are based on facts, and above all, be willing to change your mind if new information warrants a different conclusion.

CHAPTER VI

PUBLIC PROVISION FOR RECREATION

BY

Richmond Hill High School

Why We Help to Pay for Others' Pleasure

Let us ask ourselves the question, "Why does the city help us to play?" The answer lies in the fact that the city that makes provision for recreation is more likely to be a happier, healthier, and more orderly community. It will be happier since every one feels better and takes a new interest in life after refreshing his mind or body by some form of recreation.

The right kind of recreation has four effects: 1. It creates in the individual a new interest in life and relieves the monotony of everyday routine. 2. It enables the worker to do better work and more of it. 3. Certain centers of it, such as the libraries and museums, are of educational value. 4. Those amusements of athletic character teach the players the value of team work, the necessity for respecting an umpire's decision, and the sense of fair play.

The city is greatly concerned with the way in which children amuse themselves, for the character of the man is molded by the lessons learned in childhood. The quality of sportsmanship — the sense of fair play, a willingness to give and take, — is furthered in no way better than by playing the right kind of games.

The City of New York in providing recreational facilities for the people's enjoyment is not increasing its expenditures, for a community of healthy, contented, and educated people will have less need for institutions maintained for the poor, the destitute, the criminal, and the sick.

Face to Face with Funny Fish

"Of Recreation there is none
So free as Fishing is alone;
All other Pastimes do no less
Than Mind and Body both possess;
My Hand alone my work can do,
So I can fish and study too."

A visit to the Aquarium is not exactly fishing, but in the winter, when one cannot indulge in this pastime, he can go down

COOLING OFF. *Photo by Rodel and Herbert.*

to the Battery and enjoy, as the proverbial salesman would say, "something just as good."

The first specimen that meets the eye is the inevitable sea-lion. One looks at him and is haunted by that melodious voice for the rest of his days. The sea-lion is in the center of the main floor and at either side is a tank with turtles waddling from morn to night. The larger specimens, such as alligators, walruses, and the aforementioned sea-lion, are kept on the main floor.

The city has been fortunate in acquiring aquatic specimens from all over the world. All the nooks and crannies of the United States have sent their expert swimmers to the great collection at the Aquarium.

There are long, round paddlefish from the Mississippi Valley, pink and yellow salmon from the rivers of Maine and Oregon,

In the Aquarium, Battery Park.

round, flat pompanos from Brazil, and scalloped sturgeons from the Pacific Coast.

"So take the train to Bowling Green
And if it is your earnest wish,
You need but walk across the park
And be face to face with funny fish."

The New York Zoölogical Society, which is in sole control of the Aquarium, has also a wonderful collection of animals and birds in the Zoölogical Park, which occupies the southern half of Bronx Park.

Oases in the Desert of Brick and Mortar

Just as the desert traveler welcomes the fresh, green, waving palm, and the life-giving water of the oasis in the desert of sand, so the younger generation of New York City welcomes the clinking of metal apparatus, the thuds of a basketball, and the excited shouts that proclaim one of the small recreational oases in the desert of brick and mortar, the small park and playground.

There are thirty or more small parks and playgrounds in Manhattan open to the public, and in Brooklyn there are about

Photo by Underwood and Underwood.

In Bronx Park "Zoo."

the same number. All these parks are designed with an eye to beauty in the laying out of grass plots and flowers. They have also an ample number of benches to accommodate those who wish to rest.

Tompkins Square is located at Tenth Street and Avenue A. This is a typical eastside district of New York — inhabited by people of many nationalities. All day long an instructor is in charge of the playground, and classes pass in a continuous stream back and forth to the swings, trapezes, and field activities. It is instructive as well as amusing to see the mixed gath-

ering having a catch and playing baseball at the same time that a form of soccer is in progress on the same field.

Here is the sort of thing that will develop both mind and body, and create a sportsmanlike spirit and sense of fair play. Does not the value to the city of citizens with just such qualities exceed the amount in dollars and cents that it expends in establishing these small centers?

Photo by Brown Bros.

AN OASIS IN A DESERT OF BRICK AND MORTAR. MADISON SQUARE.

Fun for Children in the Parks

During the pleasant days of late spring and early summer, a casual stroller in the larger parks observes gay groups of small children dressed in the brightest colors of the rainbow. In the midst, there may be seen the maypoles, beautifully decorated with many colored streamers and flowers. At these May parties, the pole is usually the main feature, and the children laughingly dance around it, entwining their streamers. Many games

follow this and then come the refreshments, naturally the most important feature of the party.

In almost every park there is at least one miniature lake. During these warm sunny days, children go there every day to sail boats and to paddle in the water.

One of the most popular sports in winter is sleigh riding. After school hours the kiddies may be seen coasting down many of the hills. Of course the country child has the advantage

MAY POLE IN CENTRAL PARK. *Wide World Photo.*

over the city boys and girls, with his unlimited fields and hills on which to play; but the city children have almost as much fun in the public parks, even though the hills may not be so steep.

The City Helps Dad Get Fresh Air

Recreation for grown-ups is varied. In summer, provision is made for golf, boating, tennis, croquet, concerts, and bowling, while in winter one can enjoy ice-skating, skiing, and dancing.

The lakes in Prospect Park and Central Park especially, are ideal places for boating. Besides the rowboats, electric launches

make a circuit of the lake. Some take pleasure in horse-back riding. There are many parks that have bridle paths, especially Central, Prospect, Forest, and Pelham Bay parks. The paths wind their way delightfully through the parks, so while enjoying a ride one can also view the beauties of nature.

Still another recreation for grown-ups is yachting with small models. This is one of the most picturesque of outdoor pastimes in Prospect and Central parks, where several contests are held among the owners of miniature yachts.

WINTER SPORT IN THE PARK. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

Some of the most beneficial recreations given by the city to the public are the band and orchestral concerts held in the parks.

The Park Department

The parks not only offer recreation for grown-ups, but they provide quiet and restful places for tired mothers and tired business people. They are also a benefit to the aged.

The responsible agency for the parks of our city is the Park Department, at the head of which is the Park Board. This Board consists of five commissioners appointed by the Mayor,

one commissioner for each of the boroughs. The Mayor designates the Commissioner who shall be president of the Board.

If a citizen wishes to make any special use of a park, or desires a permit for such recreational activities as require a license, he should apply to the park commissioner in his borough.

RIVERSIDE DRIVE. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

How New York State Gives Us Recreation

Where is there a more beautiful spot than Bear Mountain? It is situated in the Highlands of the Hudson, from which the beautiful winding river can be seen from many different angles. Boats leave New York daily with their cargoes of merrymakers for this park.

From the pier a beautiful shady path begins and winds between flowers and shrubs of various colors and massive bowlders covered with moss.

One sees a sign in the distance, "Please do not pick the wild flowers; others want to see them." Since many "others" wish

to enjoy flowers and since one realizes that the picking of them would devastate the park in the course of a few days, one leaves nature's children unmolested.

The lake is at the top, surrounded by hills and woods. The fee for hiring a boat is twenty-five cents, but if at the end of an hour the boat is returned, the twenty-five cents is also returned.

For those who do not care for rowing, a dance hall is the center

BEAR MOUNTAIN PARK. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

of attraction. This is a quaint building, constructed of logs with a roof held up by tree trunks.

You can discover many other more distant spots that the State reserves for recreation. See the booklets of the State Conservation Commission, *Catskill Highways*, *Adirondack Highways*, *New York State Parks and Reservations*, and *Public Use of the Forest.*

Opportunities for Water Sports Provided by New York City

A trip to the seashore offers a change in both the mental and the physical atmosphere for the grown-ups; sunlight, fresh air, and plenty of play-room for the children; and the possibility of a refreshing dip in the ocean for all. In the borough of Manhattan there are no free beaches, but the authorities offer a

very able substitute, the floating baths. Many such floating pools are found about Manhattan, the most popular being the two at the Battery sea wall, the one at Pier 33 on the East River near Pike Street, and the one at the foot of East Tenth Street. The attendance at these floating pools in 1920 was 7,500,056 people.

In Brownsville at the Betsy Head Playground an outdoor swimming pool is maintained by the city, 151 feet long and 60

CONEY ISLAND BOARDWALK. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

feet wide. The city provides a swimming instructor, springboards, goals for water polo, life rings, and all the other equipment of a modern pool.

The shore at Coney Island is divided into two beaches, Dreamland and Concourse. In addition to the fine ocean bathing beach over 1,000 feet long, there is a substantial concrete structure containing 1,300 individual rooms.

When children have the space to play, their whole attention

Full Play Streets Make Empty Jails

is absorbed in their games, and they have no time for wrong-doing. Each afternoon the schools pour out on the streets a million children. All the children want to play out of doors where they are in bodily danger, or where some may be in conflict with the authorities for smashing windows, breaking signal-lights on the railroads, bean shooting at the electric lights along the streets, stealing, building fires, or pulling down signs. Only

Photo by Brown Bros.

EIGHTY-FIVE IN THE SHADE AND COMFORTABLE.

one ninth of Manhattan, with its intensely congested population, is devoted to parks; Brooklyn and Queens have but one fiftieth of their area devoted to parks. Where can the children play?

In the crowded quarters where the Police Department has decided that traffic will not be interfered with unduly, the borough presidents have closed certain streets to vehicles so children may play safely. These streets are always well paved so that they may be thoroughly cleaned and permit of dancing.

Reminders of the Past

In many parts of our city we are frequently reminded of great wars, of great heroes, and of great men distinguished in literature, art, and science. The reminders are the statues, monuments, tablets, and battlefields.

Among the many famous statues in this city is that of Nathan Hale in City Hall Park. In front of the Sub-Treasury Building on Wall Street is the statue of George Washington. Those of

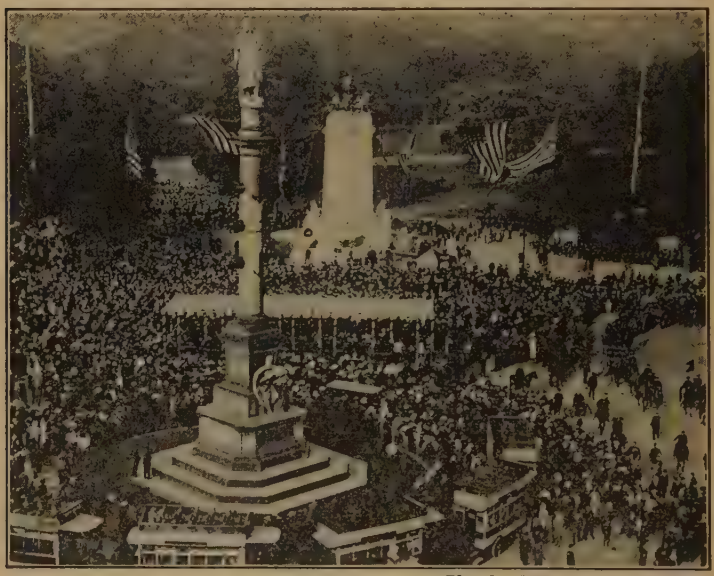


Photo by Underwood and Underwood.

UNVEILING MAINE MEMORIAL.

Columbus and Alexander Hamilton may be seen in Central Park. If you take a walk through Prospect Park you will see the statues of war heroes, musicians, and poets.

Perhaps the most imposing monuments in New York City are the great arches, one at the entrance to Prospect Park and one in Washington Square.

Every country has its battlefields. America has known only two great wars that have actually taken place on her own soil.

the Revolution and the Civil War. One may go over a great deal of the historic ground of the Battle of Long Island by visiting Prospect Park and Fort Greene Park. The fort in Fort Greene Park is gone, but a monument now marks its site.

Museums are the storehouses of the ages. Among the important ones in New York City are the Metropolitan Museum

Storehouses of the Ages

Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

CHILDREN ABSORBED IN STUDY OF FLAMINGOS.

of Art, the Museum of Natural History, the Brooklyn Museum, and the Children's Museum.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art, located in Central Park, contains a collection of objects of art — paintings, sculpture, pottery, industrial art, handwork of every description — gathered from all parts of the globe. This museum is a great educational institution; its facilities for helping the student of art, of history, of English, of geography, of civics are many and exceedingly helpful if we can only learn to use them. Among

the educational facilities offered us we find the following: 1. Staff of instructors to interpret the collections. 2. Lending collections of lantern slides, maps, casts, reproductions, textiles, etc. 3. Lectures. 4. Story hours for children. 5. Class rooms with lanterns for teachers and school groups. 6. Special exhibitions

Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

STUDYING THE PENGUIN GROUP.

by schools of their own work. 7. Service department for manufacturers and designers.

The Museum of Natural History contains antiques, skeletons, stuffed animals, meteors, and stones of great variety. There are also scenes showing industries and how they were carried on in olden days.

In the Brooklyn Museum almost an entire floor is devoted to Chinese and Japanese exhibits. There are rare old carvings, fans, ornaments, and cooking utensils. On other floors may be

found examples of ancient pottery, Egyptian art, and Indian relics.

The Children's Museum in Brooklyn gives boys and girls scientific acquaintance with mechanical processes and objects of beauty. Visitors are entertained by means of story-telling, exhibits, a nature library, and personal attention.

Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

HOPI INDIAN GROUP.

Yet with all these wonders open to them, how many of our citizens ever step inside the doors that hold and guard these wonders of the ages? "A museum is worth having only if it *works*, if it is *useful*."

Public Lectures

During the season over three thousand free lectures are given under the auspices of the Board of Education in the public school auditoriums at night. These lectures are mainly for adults. Noted men and authors are included in the list of speakers and their talks are often illustrated with stereopticon

views. An evening lecture affords great pleasure to people who have little time to read or to study since it is both instructive and entertaining. It gives the workingman a chance to relieve his mind from his daily toil, and the businessman from his business cares.

Recreation from Books

There is no pastime so restful and interesting as reading. Most people find this so. Of course there are some people whose

Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

NEW YORK CITY HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ATTENDING A LECTURE AT THE MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY.

business calls for a great deal of reading and who would rather take their recreation in some sort of physical exercise, but even these people enjoy reading.

There is nothing more interesting and fascinating than to get a good book, a comfortable chair, and with good light, read to your heart's content. The next time you wish to read your favorite author, go to the nearest library and see if this is not so.

A very valuable division of the library is the children's department. There is a large collection of books carefully chosen to suit the needs of children of all ages. This is a great help to the child for he gets not only amusement but knowledge.

Is there any other way by which we can get so much recreation as from books? Not every one is rich enough to own all

Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

FLOWER AND VEGETABLE SHOW.
Exhibit of Public School 18, Richmond.

the books he desires but the public library offers us the use of these books free of charge.

Community Supervision of Private Recreation

Much of the recreation taken by our citizens is provided by private agencies, but the community is ever watchful to see that only that which will not lower the physical, intellectual, or moral standards of the community is offered to the patrons. Paul takes Virginia to the movies and the activities of his Community are far from his thoughts. The Community, how-

ever, has not forgotten to look after Paul and Virginia. The owner of the theater has had to obtain a license from the city, the building has been regularly inspected by the Bureau of Buildings and the Fire Department, the operator of the picture machine must have a license from the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity, and the picture must receive the approval of the State Motion Picture Commission.

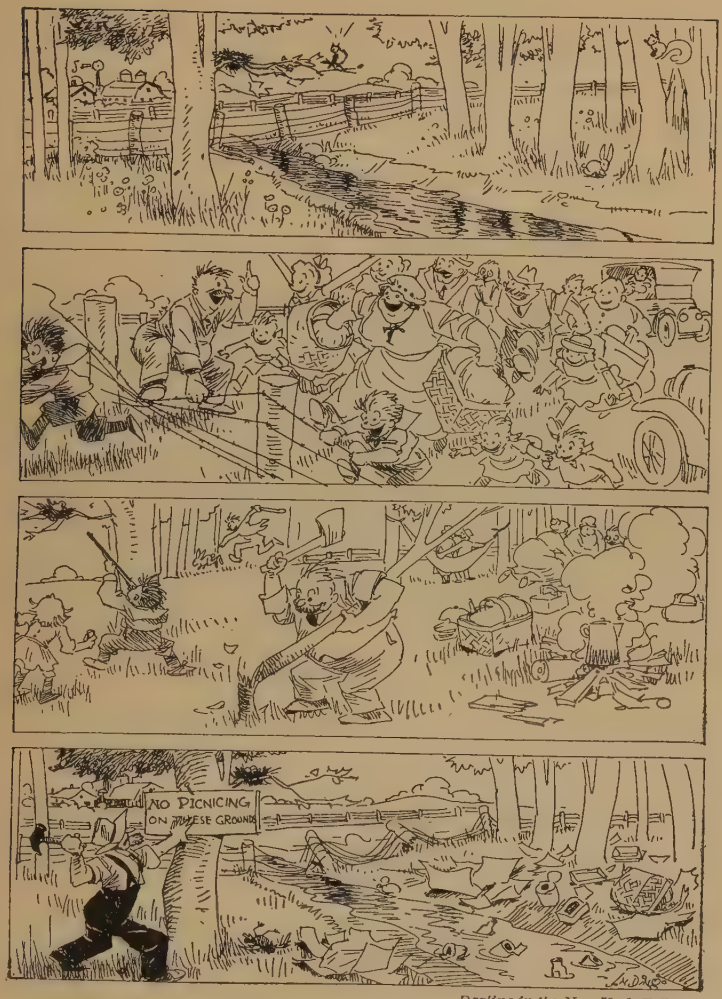
Photo by Brown Bros.

MAIN READING ROOM IN NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.

This supervision is apparent wherever Paul and Virginia may go for their recreation. The city licenses and the police supervise the dance halls, the skating rinks, the bowling alleys, and the pool parlors. The police regulate the style of their bathing suits. The courts may decide what books may be read. The state regulates and supervises boxing and horse-racing. The United States supervises their recreation while on water.

The Good Citizen and Recreation

The organized community does much in providing and supervising recreation. Is there anything left for the individual citi-



Darling in the New York Tribune.

LOOK OUT! HERE COME THE NATURE LOVERS.

zen to do? In recreation as in all activities of the community, everything depends on the activity of the GOOD CITIZEN.

He should know the various recreational activities provided by his community. He should make use of these and call them to the attention of his neighbors. *"Use and Not Abuse,"* should be his motto.

The parks do not suffer when the good citizen visits them. His lunch refuse and waste papers are put into the proper receptacles; he enjoys the shrubs and flowers and does not idly destroy them; he realizes that electric lamps are to light the

WHERE THERE IS NO CIVIC PRIDE.
Refuse left by one holiday crowd.

parks and are not targets for stones. He aids his community by passing this knowledge on to such of the ignorant and indifferent as he may meet.

When the good citizen travels from the city and hikes or cycles or motors to the countryside, he remembers that his lunch refuse should be burned or carried away, and that all camp fires should be carefully extinguished. He realizes that wild flowers are prettiest when growing in the field, that other seekers after recreation will be along tomorrow to admire the dog-wood if he leaves it in its natural state. He does not have to be told by the Airedale that the fruit belongs to the farmer. Such a citizen is always sure to be welcomed wherever he may go.

CHAPTER VII

GUARDING THE HEALTH OF THE PEOPLE

BY

Theodore Roosevelt High School

Our Doctor

We read very often that the Chinese pay their doctors as long as they are kept in good health. This sounds rather strange to us, but I wonder if we, too, do not pay our doctors to keep us well. Perhaps we do not ordinarily think of the street cleaners, sanitary inspectors, and school teachers as doctors; but no one doubts that much of our freedom from disease is due to them as well as to the real doctors who care for us in time of sickness. When asked for proof that this is true, we have only to refer to the change in the death rate for the past fifty years, to have assurance that the work of these various agencies is effective. That our death rate has fallen in the last fifty years from 28 per thousand to 11 per thousand means the saving of almost one hundred thousand lives per year, — good proof that health protection pays.

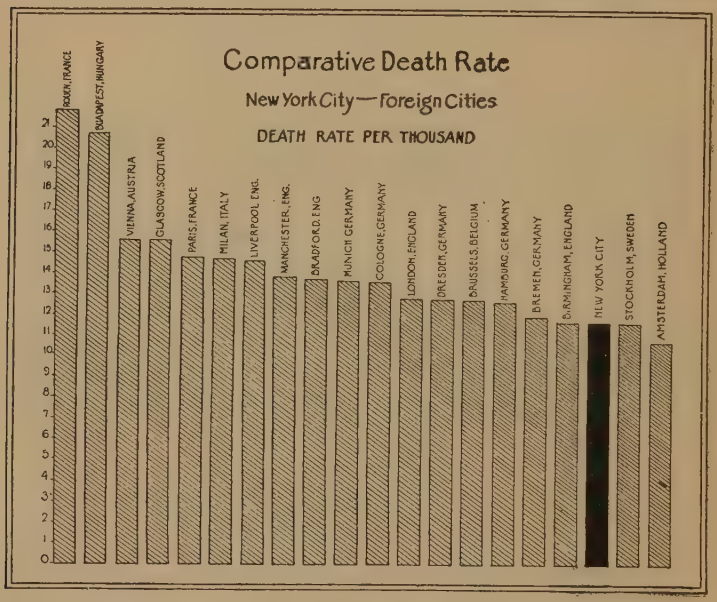
Illness Is Costly

Like so many things we take for granted, we think little of our health when we are well, and realize its importance only when it is too late. When we, or members of our own families, are sick, we wish that we had taken the necessary measures to prevent the suffering, discomfort, and worry that so generally accompany disease. Any employer knows how great a loss is suffered by industry from the absence of workingmen who are ill, and wage earners know only too well how the yearly income is sadly reduced by deductions because of sickness. It has been estimated that the average workingman in the United States loses two weeks of every year from sickness, much of which is

preventable. Even pupils in school realize how a few days of illness interferes with their studies.

Controlling Disease

For long ages people took their diseases as necessary evils and made little effort to save themselves from the results. Nowadays we consider a person who does not take the ordinary precautions against sickness as stupid. Our constantly decreasing death rate in the face of steadily increasing dangers to

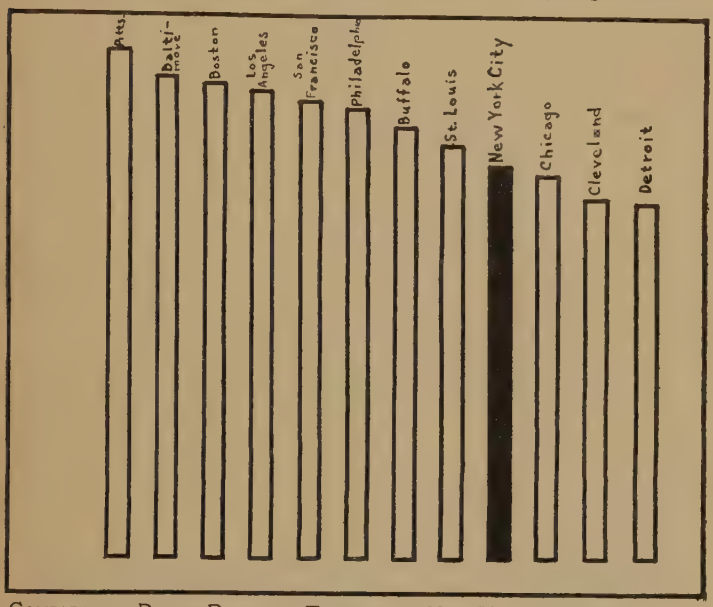


life and limb is the best proof that disease can be largely prevented or controlled. When thinking of the diseases that are now listed as preventable we notice that the list includes many that were formerly thought to be uncontrollable, and it now looks as if old age will soon be the only ailment which the health departments will not be able to control.

Need of Coöperation

Since sickness so often results from dirt, lack of air and sunlight, and contact with diseased persons, it is easy enough to realize that healthful conditions cannot be secured by any *in-*

dividual so long as he has to travel on the city streets, eat food that is sold in the city stores, and drink the city water supply. The *coöperation of the people* in a community is necessary to provide even a minimum of good health conditions. As groups grow larger and the space in which we live becomes more confined, there arises more and more the need of group action in



COMPARATIVE DEATH RATE PER THOUSAND. NEW YORK CITY AND OTHER AMERICAN CITIES.

limiting the right of individuals to be careless, to spread their diseases without hindrance, or even to die without medical attention. This explains the reason for the hundreds of regulations of our Sanitary Code covering many different types of conditions. Keeping chickens, physical examinations of factory workers, proper heating in the homes, and thousands of other subjects for health-producing regulations come under this supervision.

Sources of Ill Health

In working on the problem of making a city more healthful, the first essential was the study of the origins of diseases. The great discoveries in regard to disease-bearing germs sent investigators to our food supply to find the source of typhoid and many of the diseases once so common. Investigation of the purity of our food supply was the next natural step in safeguarding us from these dangers. The dangers of communicable diseases from people as well as from food were also recognized. The general need of sanitary surroundings, including fresh air and sunlight, was early recognized as essential in the fight on tuberculosis and similar ills. To secure these for the people of the city, regardless of their wealth or poverty, was the aim of the city's health workers. No one would say we have reached ideal conditions, but we cannot deny that we have made wonderful progress.

Since many diseases are quite readily controllable at their origin, the next step was to make possible and at the same time to make compulsory the care of early stages of disease. Here then is where the free clinics and dispensaries find their greatest field of usefulness.

Working Conditions

Care of our living conditions could not be entirely efficacious so long as people had to work under unsanitary conditions for the major part of every day. Thus arises the need of safeguarding the worker as well as the home dweller. With government control over factories, offices, etc., we find the abolition of the sweatshop and the introduction of many reforms a natural result.

Work of New York City Health Department

To make us realize the value of good health and then to teach us ways and means of keeping it is naturally the work of any efficient department of health. The work of the New York City Health Department has been largely under three heads: first, there has been investigation to determine the causes of disease; secondly, there has been work of prevention to curtail the danger from contagious diseases and the like;

and finally, the care and cure of the illness we have not been able to ward off.

Board of Health

The highest power is vested in the Board of Health composed of the Commissioner of Health, the Police Commissioner, and a qualified physician designated by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. This board enacts the Sanitary Code, issues emergency health orders, and has broad powers in all matters affecting public welfare in the matter of health. The main office of the Board of Health is located at 505 Pearl Street, Manhattan. Each borough has a branch office.

Department of Health

The Department of Health is in charge of the Commissioner of Health and his deputy. The work is carried on through nine bureaus: Bureau of General Administration, Bureau of Child Hygiene, Bureau of Food and Drugs, Sanitary Bureau, Bureau of Preventable Diseases, Bureau of Laboratories, Bureau of Hospitals, Bureau of Public Health Education, and Bureau of Records. The names of these bureaus in most cases quite clearly indicate the work performed. Some of the duties are of so much interest to us, however, that they should receive special mention.

Bureau of Child Hygiene

The Bureau of Child Hygiene has the supervision of children from birth to graduation from school, or until the employment certificate is procured. The baby health stations are a well-known part of this work. Doctors and visiting nurses are employed, and visits are made to the homes if necessary. A very important work of this bureau is instructing mothers as to the care of infants. Much work is also done in the schools. The slogan is, — "Keep the children well." This is a money saving proposition for the city, as it is expensive to take care of sick children; and again, the healthy child can more readily become a helpful citizen than can the one constantly suffering from various illnesses.

This department examines children for employment certificates, and here again our young people are protected. They are kept from going into industry unless they meet the physical

requirements. Dental clinics, eye clinics, and open-air classes are also a part of the preventive work of this department. Bad teeth many times cause ill health. Parents sometimes fail to recognize the need of having even the early teeth kept in good shape. As a result of neglect, diseased gums, root infections, etc., lead to serious after-effects.

Bureau of Food and Drugs

The Bureau of Food and Drugs is charged with the enforcement of all the provisions of the Sanitary Code relating to the

Exercise and Fresh Air Will Help "Keep the Children Well."

production, manufacture, handling, and sale of food and drugs. It is also charged with the enforcement of the regulations of the Board of Health governing the conduct and maintenance of food establishments.

Its functions include the inspection and supervision of all dairies, creameries, and pasteurizing plants located outside the city limits, which are producing or handling milk and milk products for consumption in New York City; the inspection and

supervision of the sanitary conditions under which all food establishments in the city are operated; the inspection and supervision of the quality and wholesomeness of all foodstuffs sold in the city; the inspection and supervision of foodstuffs sold in the city to see that they conform to standards established by the Sanitary Code; the inspection and supervision of foodstuffs sold in the city to see that they are properly labeled and branded; the inspection and supervision of all shellfish sold; the supervision of the quality of drugs sold in the city, and of the claims made for drugs and medicines; and the supervision of the registration of patent and proprietary medicines.

The Bureau of Food and Drugs is charged with the inspection of the following establishments and places where food is handled: Bakeries, confectioneries, carbonated water manufactories, cold storage plants, commission houses, eggbreaking establishments, fat rendering plants, ice cream manufactories, food factories, restaurants, slaughter-houses (cattle and poultry), warehouses, piers, railroad terminals, milk depots, and pasteurizing plants; all retail food stores, including those dealing in groceries, delicatessen, fruits and vegetables, and fish.

This bureau also supervises the operation of the pasteurizing plant formerly operated by Mr. Nathan Straus and which was deeded by him to the city.

All stores handling any of the above-mentioned products must be carefully inspected. Labels on cans, bottles, etc., must be observed and examination made to see if the contents are in accordance with the facts given on the labels.

Sanitary Bureau

The Sanitary Bureau is very directly concerned with many things relating to our daily lives. Diseases are controlled by this bureau in various ways. Inspectors enforce the rules regarding plumbing, lighting, heat, and ventilation of buildings. If an apartment is not kept heated to a sufficient temperature, telephone to the Board of Health. An inspector from this bureau will come and look up conditions, will give notice to

those whose duty it is to provide heat, and will later make a return trip to see if the apartment is heated. In this bureau men are employed to eliminate conditions that are favorable to the breeding of mosquitoes and flies. Some of them assist in the draining of marshes and in oiling inland pools of water. This bureau assists the water supply department in maintaining a pure water supply and examines samples of water to make sure there is no pollution.

Rat extermination in buildings, piers, and vessels is another part of the work of this bureau. It exercises supervision over any condition that may affect the public health. Transportation of ashes, bathing establishment supervision, regulation of furnaces to prevent discharge of dense smoke, elimination of the common towel and drinking cup in public places, these and many other duties are carefully performed, if by so doing public health is preserved.

Bureau of Preventable Diseases

All communicable diseases are reported to the Bureau of Preventable Diseases by physicians, institutions, hospitals, or others who have knowledge of them. When requested, a diagnostician from this bureau may make a diagnosis of a doubtful case. Nurses employed by the department instruct families as to the means of preventing disease, examine persons who have been exposed, and recommend that those patients who do not obey regulations be sent to hospitals. Clinics are kept to vaccinate against smallpox and typhoid fever, to give tetanus antitoxin and immunization against diphtheria. When requested, they give the Schick test for diphtheria. To prevent hydrophobia from bites of dogs or other large animals, the Pasteur treatment is given. The Schick test and the Pasteur treatment were each named after the persons who first worked them out. Our department has found that they are both very satisfactory. Printed directions about the control of each disease are left at the home of the families having that disease. Nineteen clinics are maintained and located in different parts of the city to give treatment to persons suffering from

tuberculosis and to recommend persons having this disease to hospitals and sanitarium care.

Tuberculosis is a disease that thrives as a result of indoor life, unless proper precautions are followed. In 1881 the death rate from this disease in New York City was 4.27 per thousand. That meant that out of every one thousand people in New York, at least four died of tuberculosis during the year. Our Health

Tuberculosis

Inoculation Against Typhoid Fever. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

Department has taken the pains to find the causes of a high death rate and is employing the means to lower it. To show how it has been lowered the figures for 1915 point out that while the population was almost five times as great as in 1881, the death rate from tuberculosis in 1915 was only 1.61 out of every thousand. A chart giving the death rate of each year from 1881 to 1915 would show that the change has been gradual, and yet the proportional decrease has been more than sixty per cent.

A Typical Case

The work of the department is carried out in the following way. Each person in the city having tuberculosis is registered; if he remains at home he must take full precautions. He is visited at least once a month by a visiting nurse. As an example of how a typical case may be taken care of, we may cite any one of the many that come to the attention of the Health Department. During a season of sickness a man has had a

DEATH RATE FROM PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS PER 100,000 OF POPULATION. NEW YORK CITY, 1868–1921.

cold that lasts longer than usual. He lives near one of the many clinics for tuberculosis in the city. Not being able to afford the constant attention of a physician, he is advised to go to one of these clinics. His sputum as well as his whole physical condition is thoroughly examined. The first test is never considered final, and, after several weeks, another examination is given. Finally, a third examination is given, and if the findings are reported positive, the patient is recorded as a case of incipient tuberculosis. Positive findings mean that the

germs of tuberculosis have been found. There are three stages of this disease. If it is discovered in the incipient stage, the life of the person may be prolonged for years.

How to Obtain Help of Health Department

The person whom we are using as an example may not have funds necessary to maintain the proper living conditions. He is then recommended to the Hospital Diagnosis Station of the Department of Health. All clinic records are mailed direct to this station. An examination is given him on three successive days. If he is still found to be a case needing attention, he is notified by a nurse, and a final examination is given. If he is pronounced tubercular, we may suppose he is given admission to the City Sanitorium at Otisville, New York. The city pays for his transportation. His board, lodging, and daily medical attention are given him free of charge. He improves daily we hope, and when it has been found that all that is necessary has been done for him, he is returned to the city, again able to cope with the affairs of life.

Treatment

Under the open air treatment, he is given as much work as the physicians think him able to do. After a time he may be able to secure work at the Sanitorium, for which he will receive compensation and through which he will have the advantage of receiving advanced education so that when he returns to his home he may be able to get more pay than he was receiving before he was attacked by the disease. Must we not say that the city has indeed been a good friend? A life has been saved and in the process some interesting and worth while use has been made of hours that would otherwise have been dull and filled with gloomy forebodings.

Bureau of Laboratories

The word *laboratory*, coming from the word *labor*, indicates that the Bureau of Laboratories is a bureau of work. There much of the material used by the Bureau of Preventable Diseases is manufactured, vaccine to be used for the Schick test, the tetanus antitoxin, and the antitoxin for immunization against diphtheria. Experiments are made with small animals, to find means of preventing other diseases. The word *anti-*

toxin (against a poison) means a remedy against some poison in the system.

Immunization means making it impossible for the person to take the disease.

To vaccinate means to place something in the system or inject something to prevent disease.

Photo by Brown Bros.

IN THE LABORATORY OF ONE OF THE CITY'S HOSPITALS.

Hospitals

The hospitals of the Health Department are for the care of persons having communicable diseases. They are as follows:

Willard Parker Hospital at the foot of Sixteenth Street, Manhattan.

Riverside Hospital on North Brother Island.

Kingston Avenue Hospital in Brooklyn.

Queensboro Hospital in Jamaica.

Tuberculosis Sanitorium at Otisville, New York (seventy-six miles from the city).

All the hospitals except the last one named are within the city limits.

The sanitorium at Otisville occupies 1,400 acres at an elevation of 1,500 feet. With these healthy surroundings, the patients begin work as soon as they are able, and after the excellent treatment offered free by the city, are, in many cases, soon able to return to work. The children sent there are placed in one of the city schools located there for their instruction.

Bureau of Public Health Education

The Bureau of Public Health Education publishes material regarding the work of the department, and as the name implies, educates the public regarding health. It gives exhibits in different places, furnishes lantern slides, photographs, and motion pictures of the work, thus helping to secure the coöperation of the public. It publishes periodicals regularly. They are as follows: the *Weekly Bulletin*, the *Monthly Bulletin*, the *School Health News* and the *Staff News*. The first two papers are for physicians; the third named one, for teachers and pupils in schools; the *Staff News* is for employees of the department, because as may be seen from the large amount of work to be done, we have more than 3,000 people working for the Department of Health all the time. All the exhibits mentioned are lent free to responsible persons, and thus there may be a general knowledge as to how New York, though the largest city, may continue to be one of the most healthy cities of the country.

Bureau of Records

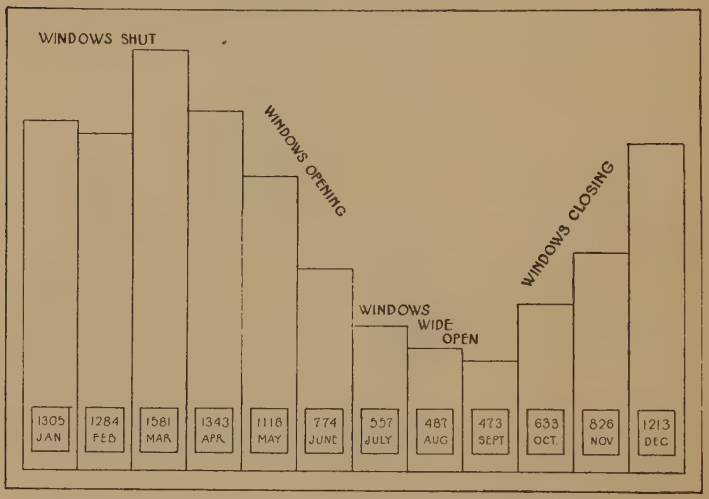
It would be a mistake if we were to omit reference to the Bureau of Records. Statistics may be uninteresting to some of us. Some people may know how to use them, but it is only by comparing records that we can have real proof as to our progress.

The law states that all births, marriages, and deaths must be reported to the Health Department. These certificates are prepared in duplicate and carefully kept in fireproof vaults. Many, many times these records are referred to for proof that must be absolute, 200,000 searches of records being made yearly for various purposes. A small fee is charged for this service. Admission to public schools, employment certificates, proof of death for insurance or inheritance purposes, proof of birth for passports or for civil service entrance; all of these require the assistance of the records of this department.

Industrial Hygiene

Industrial hygiene, which means the making of better hygienic conditions for the worker, is one of the most important means of preventing disease today. The principal risks in the different kinds of work are classified by the Health Department as follows:

1. Dust, either organic or inorganic, fumes, gases, vapors, and acids, poisonous and non-poisonous.
2. Harmful bacteria causing infection.
3. Improper ventilation.
4. Improper lighting conditions.
5. Extremes in temperature and humidity.
6. Excessive strain leading to fatigue, etc.



DEATHS FROM PNEUMONIA, BRONCHITIS, COLDS, AND GRIP.

In the factory, office, store, or home, at night and during the day, there should always be a circulation of fresh air.

7. Compressed or rarified atmosphere.
8. Unguarded, poorly taken care of, or carelessly operated machinery.
9. Fire hazards.

Suggested Improvements

After classifying the risks in this way, the Health Department, through a Division of Industrial Hygiene, investigated the present industrial legislation and began the study of the new laws needed. Some of the ways of improvement that are being advocated are as follows:

1. To train workers so that their energy may be spent to the best advantage, *i.e.* to do their work in the most efficient way, with the least possible expenditure of energy.
2. To see that workers are acquainted with a knowledge of first aid material, and when possible to have first aid corps.
3. To advocate the periodic physical examination of all employees.
4. To have new workers accepted only with a physician's certificate, so that communicable diseases may be prevented.
5. In industries where poisoning may occur, the workers should be instructed in regard to preventive methods, the advisability of changing clothes when leaving work, and of not eating where they are at work.

If the above-named suggestions can be carried out there is no doubt that there will be much less illness among workers. This means less time lost, greater contentment of employees, and larger wages. Surely this would be worth while.

Coöperation of New York State

New York State maintains a Department of Health, the important features and work of which may be enumerated as follows:

1. A State Health Council which has power to establish a state-wide sanitary code.
2. The concentration of all administrative power in the hands of a single commissioner to be known as the State Commissioner of Health, who has a staff of experts to advise as to special kinds of health work.
3. A well organized scheme of *coöperation* between the State Department and local health authorities.

We might add further that the state health authorities have done a very great work in their endeavors to prevent the pollution of streams. This department may also declare a quarantine against neighboring states when contagious diseases are prevalent.

Coöperation of the Federal Government

The United States, or federal government, aids to a great extent in improving and developing the health work of America. Of course there is no limit to the power of the national government in its efforts to protect and conserve the health of its citizens. It is chiefly under its power given to it by the Constitution to regulate foreign trade and inter-state commerce that Congress has passed many laws that protect health and has placed their enforcement into the hands of the various departments of the federal government.

Department of Agriculture Helps

The Department of Agriculture helps in public health work through its home demonstration agents. These people go out into the great country districts and by personal contact with the people foster and project much public health improvement. The office of rural engineering of this same department deals with problems of farm water supply, and rural sanitation. The Bureau of Entomology carries on a relentless warfare against pests like flies, mosquitoes, and other disease-carrying insects, which are a menace to public health.

Pure Food and Drugs Act

The Bureau of Animal Industry inspects cattle, meats, and dairy products. The Pure Food and Drugs Act, which was passed in 1906, requires all food products and medicines to be truthfully labeled. Through the operation of this law the people of America have been rendered a service and protection beyond all possible estimation. "Guaranteed under the Pure Food and Drugs Act" does not mean, as so many suppose, that the United States Government is guaranteeing the quality of the contents. What it actually means is that the materials contained within the jar or package are correctly enumerated on the label.

It means that the fraudulent and harmful "cures" and patent medicines may be thus driven out of the market. Thus innocent and trusting individuals are saved from the wiles and ruses of unscrupulous individuals who might mislead them by "fake" advertisements.

The Bureau of Chemistry and the Bureau of Animal Industry under the Department of Agriculture are waging continuous

campaigns for the protection of public health through pure food.

United States Public Health Service

The United States Public Health Service, under the Treasury Department, odd as it may seem, investigates diseases and health conditions and the means of controlling them. It has issued many reports and a long list of publications of great value in health work. *Public Health Report* is a weekly publication. A series of bulletins on such topics as Health Insurance,

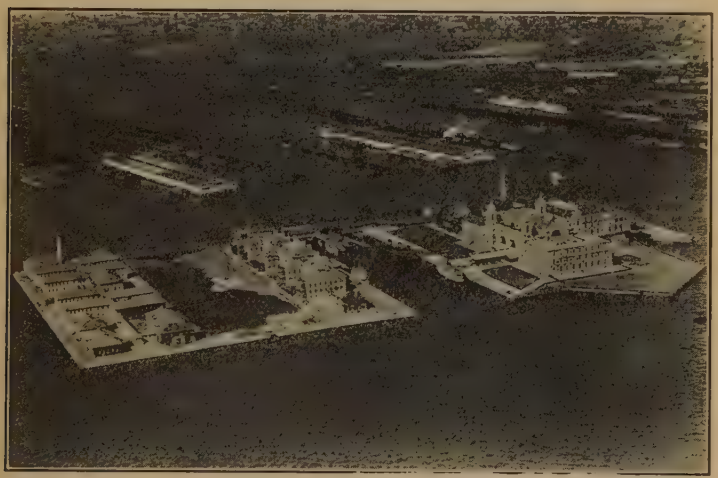


Photo and Copyright by Major Hamilton Maxwell.

ELLIS ISLAND.

Here immigrants are examined so that the people of the United States may be protected from communicable diseases brought from beyond the seas.

Rural Sanitation, Good Water for Farm Homes, etc., have proved very valuable.

Department of Labor

The Department of Labor seeks to improve physical conditions of labor for men and women, and its "Children's Bureau" is charged with the responsibility of studying all matters pertaining to the welfare of children. It is also through this department that the federal government exercises control over immigration medical inspection.

Department of Commerce

In the Department of Commerce there is an important bureau that may be included in an exposition of what our national government does for the public health. It is the Federal Census Bureau, which collects national vital statistics, always of great service in showing the diseases of greater destructive power, thus keeping the people warned of these lurking enemies.

The Bureau of Mines, also under the Department of Commerce, endeavors to prevent accidents in the mining industries and to improve sanitary conditions and otherwise safeguard those who work in mines. Finally, there are the wonderful achievements of our army engineers and medical staff in the crusade for better health conditions. What they accomplished in Cuba, Porto Rico, Panama, and the Philippines will ever remain among the highest traditions of medical science. Their services are always at the command of their country and have even been extended to foreign countries struggling against some pest, plague, or unsanitary condition.

Individual Responsibility

We shall all agree that New York City does a most wonderful work for the health of its citizens. That does not in the least relieve the individual from the responsibility that is his. His is the duty of putting into operation the health suggestions sent out by the Bureau of Public Health Education. The regulations of the Sanitary Code are of but little good unless he, with whole-heartedness, tries to carry them out. The school nurse, the Health Department, and doctors are all his friends. Meet them in this friendly spirit and you will be acting the part of a good citizen.

Again, we find many things in our everyday life to which we should give attention if we desire to have healthy bodies. What you eat, what you drink, how much, and what kinds of exercise you take, how many hours of sleep; all of these are to be considered.

Exercise of the right kind is doubtless worthy of more attention by the young person than it usually receives. The movies are too alluring. They are doubtless all right, but out-of-doors

is the place where every boy and girl student should get recreation. Study and work must take place indoors. Play should be out-of-doors.

Walking, riding, tennis, ball-playing, and numberless other activities take us to the open and make our blood, which has become sluggish through bodily inactivity, circulate to the very tips of our toes and fingers. This means health.

EXERCISES IN SCHOOL TO PROMOTE THE HEALTH OF THE CHILDREN.

Theodore Roosevelt, our ideal American, was great, among other things, because of his abounding health and energy. As a youth he was not able to do all the things other boys did because of lack of health. He determined to fit himself to hold his own in the world and, with his father to advise him, he made for himself a full program of out-of-door activities.

He followed this day after day. We are all familiar with the results: Roosevelt, the strong, quick thinking, forceful soldier, statesman, leader. Do you admire him? Would you like to

accomplish what he did? Would you like to be the leader he was? The first step is to be aboundingly healthy. The opportunity is yours. Grasp it now. Begin today. Let us use his own words. "Don't flinch, don't foul, but hit the line hard."

CHAPTER VIII

WELFARE OF THE UNFORTUNATE

BY

Bryant High School

Even as New York is one of the most important cities in the world in regard to wealth, commerce, and population, so it stands out among other cities as one that is truly a brother and a friend to those of its population on whom fortune has not smiled so brightly as might be wished.

City Welfare Work

The people who come under the care of the city are classed as follows: the sick poor; the destitute poor; the orphans and the widowed mothers; the temporarily destitute; the insane and feeble-minded. To care for these people the city provides and maintains hospitals, sanitariums, and country homes.

In 1691 the city took charge of the poor, and each alderman made a list of those in his ward. In 1736 the city established a Department of Charities whose object was to help the needy poor, to diminish begging and crime, and to do these things without overburdening the taxpayers. In 1895 the Legislature separated the Correction from the Charity Department.

Shortly after the consolidation of Greater New York under one city government, a number of the most important hospitals of the city were separated from the Department of Public Charities and on February 1, 1902, they were placed under a Board known as the Board of Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals. In 1915, there was further created a Board of Child Welfare to provide for the children of widows of citizens who had a legal residence in the City of New York and whose children would become public charges under the care of the Commissioner of Public Charities if allowance were not made to the mothers for the care of these children.

Whereas at one time the Commissioner or Commissioners of Public Charities cared for all classes of the poor of the City of New York, their activities are now administered by three distinct city agencies, the Commissioner of Public Welfare, formerly known as the Commissioner of Public Charities, the trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, and the Board of Child Welfare.

The Commissioner of Public Welfare, who is the Overseer of the Poor of the City of New York, takes care of the poor and destitute children not provided for by the Board of Child Welfare. These children, formerly cared for in public institutions, have for years been cared for in private institutions for children or in private homes under the supervision and control of the Commissioner of Public Welfare, and their care and maintenance is paid for by the City of New York. The city's work of protecting the public would not be complete if it omitted the care of the sick. For this purpose nine hospitals are provided by the City of New York under the control and management of the Commissioner of Public Welfare, having over nine thousand beds reserved for the poor. In addition the city expends about two million dollars yearly in paying private hospitals for the care of poor emergency cases treated in these private hospitals. This expenditure is supervised by the Commissioner of Public Welfare.

Bellevue Hospital, the largest one of the group managed by the Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals (including Gouverneur, Harlem, and Fordham Hospitals, and the Neponsit Beach Hospital for Children), was the first hospital established for the express purpose of caring for the sick poor. These five public hospitals have a bed capacity of two thousand six hundred sixty-seven beds in addition to the nine thousand or more provided for by the city under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Public Welfare and those paid for in private hospitals.

Of the nine hospitals managed by the Commissioner of Public Welfare, three are on Welfare Island, formerly known as Blackwell's Island. These hospitals care for patients with non-con-

tagious, acute, curable and incurable diseases. People with contagious diseases are taken to hospitals that are under the care of the Board of Health, such as the Willard Parker Hospital in Manhattan, and the Kingston Avenue Hospital in Brooklyn, and the Queensborough Hospital in Queens. The Riverside Hospital on North Brother Island is for people who have tuberculosis that cannot be cured. Such cases as are curable are taken to Otisville Hospital at Otisville, New York. Sea View Hospital on Staten Island is noted for being the best equipped tuberculosis hospital in the world. On Randall's Island is a hospital giving free service to children of New York. Here epileptics and mental defectives are given special care. The Kings County Hospital also has a clinic. Here there are dispensing rooms, a special orthopedic clinic, and a brace shop where many children are fitted with braces enabling them to use arms and legs otherwise helpless.

Each general public hospital has its own ambulances. These ambulances are under the supervision of a city department. This department is the Board of Ambulance Service. The Board of Ambulance Service, composed of the Police Commissioner, the Commissioner of Public Welfare, the President of the Board of Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, and two citizens appointed by the Mayor, has supervision and control over the ambulances of all public and private hospitals (except the hospitals of the Department of Health).

The Board contracts for ambulance service with private hospitals and can establish ambulance stations wherever necessary if the funds therefor are provided by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. It also establishes ambulance districts so as to give each section of the city adequate service, and determines the routes for ambulances.

The Board calls ambulances and directs their movements through the telephone switchboard of the Police Department. An ambulance may be summoned by any citizen at any time during the day or night by telephoning Police Headquarters. Any telephone may be used for this purpose without cost.

Some may ask how the city secures the faithful nurses upon whose skill and good nature the work of hospitals largely depends. Training schools are maintained at the Metropolitan and City Hospitals in Manhattan and at Kings County and Cumberland Street Hospitals in Brooklyn. Here the surroundings are pleasant and inviting and the rooms are cheery and homelike. Any girl who has had one year of high school and a satisfactory record may apply for admission as a pupil nurse. The course lasts two and one half years. After graduation she may continue as a nurse on the hospital staff or else become a private nurse.

The city even goes further to help the needy sick by sending a nurse to the home of the patient in the hospital who has dependents who are likely to suffer while he is away. The nurse is empowered to relieve immediate want and make arrangements for the future. This is called Social Service. This social service is made possible with the money obtained from private contributions. The city pays the nurses for doing this work.

The Destitute

The destitute are those who are without food, clothing, and shelter and who have nobody who is legally responsible for their care. The care of these poor people is another phase of welfare work carried on by the city. The poor in former days were shown little or no consideration. Poverty was a crime and beggars were arrested and tortured as criminals. The almshouse of the early days was a place of misery and suffering. The inmates often had to work to exhaustion for what little they received, and were paid by cruelty and abuse. The first almshouse of our city was established in the middle of the seventeenth century on the west side of Broad Street in New Amsterdam. This was the beginning of the neat and clean poorhouses of today. People may live in the present-day poorhouses and may be treated with the care ordinarily given in private homes.

For the care of these people the city maintains two institutions, one on Welfare Island and the other in the Borough of Richmond. Of the two the one on Staten Island represents more

closely the ideals toward which the city is striving, in the care of its destitute aged.

This Staten Island home is a cottage colony where the family life as far as possible is maintained. Here old couples may be together and continue their life-long companionship.

For those who are just temporarily destitute, the city has provided a place of shelter in the Municipal Lodging House, at 432 East Twenty-fifth Street, Manhattan. It was established in 1896. Here women, children, and men are given excellent

Photo by Brown Bros.

MEAL TIME AT THE MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSE.

accommodations; such as well-lighted, airy sleeping rooms, substantial food, and good clothing. Medical care is given them if necessary.

The Orphan

Methods of caring for orphans a few centuries ago differed vastly from the very efficient ones of today. Then, children deprived of natural protectors were placed in unsanitary workhouses, which provided for almost no education of the individual and no hygienic care. The attending matrons very rarely offered even a substitute for the mother-love of which these children had been deprived. When the children became old

enough, that is, nine or ten years, they were hired out to work as veritable slaves to some farmer or factory owner.

At present, however, these unfortunates are treated much more humanely. When parents who are poor die or meet with some misfortune, the children are placed in a home where they will be cared for. It has been found best to place children in homes or in institutions which care solely for children.

Many private homes are used for the care of children. These homes are paid by the city for caring for these children.

Graduating Class, Kings County Training School for Nurses, 1923.

Institutions, situated in the country where children may have both work and play under the best advantages, are given over to the care of orphan children. It is provided that a dependent child should be committed, if possible, to an institution professing the same religion as its parents. The county is required to pay the children's board.

In 1920 the allowance, based upon war conditions, was one dollar per day for an infant under two years of age, and five dollars and twenty-five cents per week for children from two to sixteen years.

Through the Board of Child Welfare, New York is striving to make it possible for dependent children to be provided for in their own homes, if the mother be living and dependent. For the care of such children, in 1922, the Board of Child Welfare spent $4,534,000 and kept 27,195 children in their homes.

Destitute widows sometimes find it necessary to place their children in homes, when they have not sufficient means to bring them up. Lately, however, this procedure was stopped to a certain extent, by law. The laws governing mothers' pensions in

New York Foundling Asylum.

New York are considered models of their kind. Pensions are granted to widows of citizens who have children under sixteen years of age, or to widows whose husbands had taken out first papers, and whose husbands were residents of the state for a period of two years preceding death in cases where these children would otherwise become public charges and be taken from their mothers. The amount of these pensions may not exceed the sum necessary to keep a child in an institution. The pensions are administered by the local Board of Child Welfare.

Under the Child Labor Law no child is permitted to work unless he is sixteen or has taken out working papers.

The physical condition of the children is guarded in public schools by nurses and doctors. The children are examined for diseases of the hair, eyes, teeth, skin, heart, and throat.

The Feeble-minded and Insane

Among the people who are under the care of the city are the feeble-minded. These people, by reason of some misfortune, have been unable to develop a normal degree of intelligence, and cannot compete with others of their age in work, study, or play.

It is the City's purpose to help these people in every way pos-

Public School Open-air Class for Anemic Children.

sible, and try to improve their condition sufficiently to make them self-supporting. Years ago the feeble-minded were considered hopeless; but the scientist Hare insisted that these people could be educated. He proved his theory. One of his pupils, Sequin, was almost wholly cured, and later on established in New York City an institution for the cure of feeble-minded children. There is also a city institution of this type on Randall's Island. The kind of work given to the patients varies in different cases. The more intelligent are taught reading, writ-

ing, and number work. The less intelligent are unable to do any of this work and their time is given mostly to physical development. The men often study trades, including carpentry, shoemaking, farming and gardening, and painting, while the women are taught useful kitchen work. There is a mental clinic of this type at Bellevue Hospital. This clinic is conducted by the Department of Public Welfare for the entire city.

Photo by Brown Bros.

PUBLIC SCHOOL HOSPITAL CLINIC.

It is seldom that a mentally deficient person is entirely cured, and if he is permitted to leave the institution he is generally released in the care of a relative.

Closely related to the defectives are the insane. Insanity is a disease of the brain and nervous system, and it requires, like other diseases, the help of hospitals and doctors.

Formerly, in England, insane persons were placed in so-called "bedlams." Here the patients received the most cruel treatment, often being exhibited to the public like wild beasts in cages at so much per head. Visitors made sport of them.

Funds not being sufficient, partly convalescent patients were turned out to wander and beg in the streets.

In most other countries the insane were neglected entirely. They were cruelly tormented, often imprisoned as social pests, and even executed as criminals. Later, however, communities were formed in various countries of Europe, where these unfortunates were sent with a hope of being restored to health. Asylums date from the beginning of the nineteenth century. These places resembled jails rather than hospitals. Now, in most countries, and in every state of the United States, special safeguards are erected by law to prevent confinement of sane people in these institutions, as well as to secure to the insane full enjoyment of their rights.

In New York the asylum proper no longer exists. In its stead there is a hospital. There are no keepers, but trained nurses. A State Hospital Commission appointed by the Governor controls all matters regarding the insane. This commission also issues and revokes licenses to physicians who care for the insane.

The first object of these hospitals is a curative treatment, and the second is to furnish safe institutions where the insane cannot injure themselves or others. Since the hospital is considered the only proper place in which to cure insane patients, it is managed so as to accomplish this work in the best possible manner. The criminally insane are confined by themselves in safe quarters made for them in a separate establishment.

The insane are cared for by the state under the supervision of the State Hospital Commission. There are thirteen State Hospitals in the State of New York each governed by a State Board of Managers. Amusement and recreation of various kinds are provided for diverting the mind. But work of some sort is more important to the chronic insane than all other treatment. Work develops muscles, gives strength, improves the appetite and digestion, increases all the forces of the system and occupies the mind.

These institutions are usually found amid beautiful surroundings. A farm is maintained, so that those who are able may have the advantage of work in the open air. Those patients who are capable are taught to be useful. This helps to improve their mental condition.

All this has been done to help the insane, and more is being done. Methods are being constantly improved.

Ways of Preventing Public Charges

Legislation is the chief method by which the number of these unfortunates may be lessened. This does not imply that the

Photo by Brown Bros.

A Free Hospital Clinic.

point will ever be reached when the city or state will not be burdened by these charges. However, by means of the proper legislative acts, the number of dependents may be greatly minimized. Within the last decade many good laws have been passed, the tendency of which has been to better the standards of living. Among them we may enumerate the following: The Widow's Pension Fund, Industrial Insurance, Provision for Continuation Schools, and the establishment of many necessary institutions providing for the care and education of those who otherwise would become state or city wards.

Minimum wage laws are another preventive. These laws enforce a standard wage so that the individual may earn enough to support himself, and have a reserve for the future.

Few realize how the eighteenth amendment has aided in lessening the number of unfortunates in the city. Where money was foolishly spent, it is now used for some beneficial purpose.

CHAPTER IX

PROTECTION OF LIFE AND PROPERTY

BY

Flushing High School

Scope of the Work

How few people realize all that is being done for them by the government. In the olden days, the protection of life and property against lawbreakers and foreign invaders was almost the only service the citizens expected of their country. For instance, it was not until 1865 that a paid fire department was organized in the City of New York. Before that time, when a fire did break out all the men of the community would rush to the burning building in the hope of putting it out.

The people of the present day have learned the advantage and great benefit of working together to provide for the needs of themselves and their neighbors. Moreover, there are many dangers, disregarded by our grandfathers, against which we seek protection. In the ranks of this army, there will be found policemen, firemen, food inspectors, public health doctors and nurses, electrical inspectors, life-savers, coast guardsmen, geodesists, judges, soldiers, sailors, forest rangers, and weather forecasters.

The Fire-fighters

Since we are studying the services our city renders to its inhabitants, let us consider first the work of the Fire Department in protecting our life and property. The City of New York has one of the best trained, best equipped, and most efficient fire departments in the world. In it there are over six thousand men who guard sixty billion dollars' worth of property and about six million lives. In order that these men may be fitted to perform their difficult duties, they must pass a civil service examination. There is also a very strict physical examination.

After passing these tests, the men are appointed to the fire department on probation. They are then required to attend a school of instruction. Here the recruits are taught among other things to climb and descend ladders and ropes, to handle hose lines, to handle and to jump into life nets, to use the scaling ladder, and how to effect a rescue.

KEEPING THE FIRE-FIGHTERS FIT. *Photo by O. F. Browning.*

The City of New York provides these highly trained men with the best equipment money can buy, for the Fire Department has an especially difficult task due to the height of the buildings and the dense crowding of the population.

Fire-fighting Apparatus

The apparatus, which is all motorized, consists of fire engines, hook and ladder trucks, hose tenders, chemical engines, aërial ladders, and water towers.

In addition to the elaborate fire-fighting apparatus, a high-pressure water system has been established. Pumping stations

Photo by Social Press Association.

FIRE-FIGHTERS AT WORK.

The High-pressure Water System

have been built in parts of Brooklyn and in lower Manhattan for the purpose of increasing the water pressure so that there will be an adequate supply of water under sufficient pressure for use in fighting fires in high buildings.

The Fire Rescue Squad

Another special feature of our Fire Department is the Fire Rescue Squad. This is made up of firemen who volunteer for the risky work of going to very smoky fires. The members are provided with special gas masks and oxygen tanks and each squad carries pulmotors to revive those overcome by smoke, and gas appliances to cut through metal doors, etc. Very often when a person is held fast in an elevator accident, these men are called to release the injured person.

FIRE-FIGHTER SAVING A LIFE.

Fire Loss

Despite the fact the City of New York spends over eleven million dollars a year to main-

Courtesy of Pacific and Atlantic Photos, Inc.

THE FEARFUL DESTRUCTION CAUSED BY FIRE.

What the fire does not destroy directly is damaged or ruined by the water poured upon it to extinguish the flames.

tain an efficient fire department, it suffers an annual fire loss of twenty million dollars. Nor is the City of New York alone in this regard, for although nearly all the cities in the United States maintain up-to-date fire departments, they also suffer a heavy fire loss. The yearly fire loss in the United States is five

hundred million dollars. Most of us cannot conceive of such a large sum. Imagine that if every person in the United States were to drop a five dollar bill into a flaming furnace, the amount would be no larger than our annual fire loss. Another way to realize this tremendous loss would be to sit and look at the clock for a few minutes and think that while you sit there a fire

National Board of Fire Underwriters.

What Carelessness Did to a School Building. Loss $200,000.

is breaking out every minute and that some human being is struggling with the flames for his life. The number of houses so burned would make a row from New York to Los Angeles.

When a fire occurs, the question is frequently asked, "Was the building insured?"

On being told that it was, the questioner murmurs, "How lucky!" and dismisses the matter from his mind.

Fire Loss a Social Loss

Few persons know that in 1920 our country spent one billion dollars for fire insurance. This means that the people of the United States put money into the hands of some one else, never to get it back unless they have a fire.

The money of the people who do not have fires is given by the fire insurance companies to those who have, and some of it is used to pay the employees of the fire insurance companies. He who has a fire is a public enemy.

Photo by Brown Bros.

AUTOMATIC SPRINKLERS CAN BE SEEN ON THE CEILING.

We all help to pay this sum every time we purchase an article, for the manufacturer has added the cost of his insurance to the selling price of his goods. The amount of the premium varies with the fire loss. Our high cost of living is, therefore, due partly to our habits of carelessness.

The City of New York has recognized this with the result that it is using every means to prevent the enormous waste. It is now the duty of the Bureau of Fire Prevention to make buildings of all kinds as safe from fire as possible.

The Bureau of Fire Prevention

This bureau is organized into three divisions; namely the Division of Fire Appliances, the Division of Combustibles, and the Division of the Fire Marshal.

The Division of Fire Appliances

The Division of Fire Appliances has jurisdiction over all auxiliary fire appliances: such as standpipes, sprinkler systems, chemical and other fire extinguishers, the simplest form of which is the ordinary fire bucket. This division has charge of

SPREADING THE MESSAGE. *Photo by O. F. Browning.*

correction of existing fire hazards which may be structural or non-structural. The correction of the structural fire hazards includes the protection of shafts and openings through which fire might communicate from one story to another; such as, elevator, stairway, and airshaft openings. It is also the duty of this division to see that there are exit facilities, adequate to safeguard the occupants of factory buildings, such as the inclosure of stairways in fireproof material and the erection of fire escapes.

The correction of the non-structural fire hazards consists of the protection of window openings and the elimination of bad housekeeping conditions, and deals with the storage of stock and the proper disposal of waste materials; such as clippings and waste paper. Orders are issued, when necessary, for the installation of interior fire alarm systems in factories, hotels, stores, and lodging houses. This is important because it is essential that the firemen reach the fire as quickly as possible to

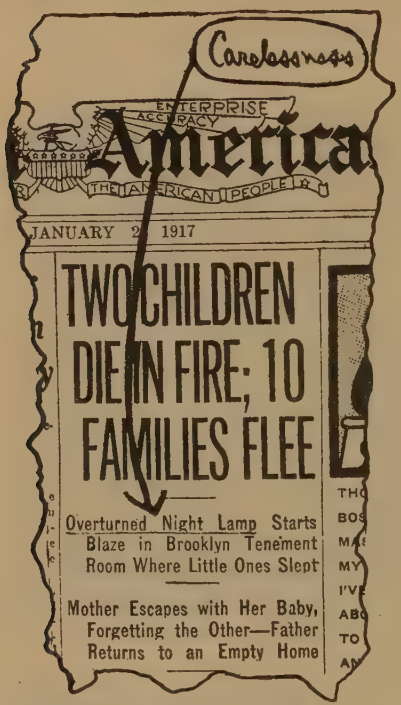
At the Fire College.

prevent its spreading. This division also has control of the removal of dangerous electrical hazards in buildings. It also supervises fire drills in factories, public schools, department stores, and elsewhere.

A thorough system of education in fire prevention is conducted by the bureau in the home, school, church, club, and civic bodies. Illustrated lectures on "Fire Prevention" are given and medals are awarded yearly to pupils in the schools for the best essays on the subject.

Theaters, motion picture houses, public dance halls, exhibition halls, athletic clubs, and ball parks are inspected to see that all fire appliances are in order.

To every performance, in every theater where a stage and scenery are used, the department sends an inspector. He must reach the theater half an hour before the performance begins and make an inspection of the entire building. He must open and shut all exits, try all fire doors, examine the asbestos curtains with their rope attachments, all skylights and fire extinguishers and survey all protective devices. It is his duty to make at least three tours of the building during a performance in order to see that the aisles and exits are not blocked by those who have bought "standing room only."


Carelessness
ENTERPRISE
ACCURACY
America
THE AMERICAN PEOPLE
JANUARY 2 1917
TWO CHILDREN DIE IN FIRE; 10 FAMILIES FLEE
Overturned Night Lamp Starts Blaze in Brooklyn Tenement Room Where Little Ones Slept
Mother Escapes with Her Baby, Forgetting the Other—Father Returns to an Empty Home

HEADLINES LIKE THIS APPEAR IN THE PAPERS ALMOST DAILY.

The Division of Combustibles

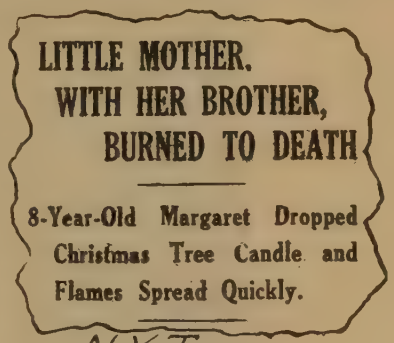
In addition to trying to prevent fires in all places of public assemblage, the Fire Prevention Bureau supervises the use of inflammable and explosive materials. Thus, dynamite can be stored and used only under authority of a permit from the Fire Department. The employees of this division also inspect dry-cleaning establishments, refrigerating plants, garages, chemical supply houses, and other businesses using any substance apt to cause explosion or sudden fires.

The Division of the Fire Marshal

The principal duty of this division is to investigate the cause and origin of all fires in the City of New York. An assistant fire marshal is assigned to every fire and makes a personal examination of the burned premises. He interviews persons having a knowledge of the cause or circumstances of the fire and files a report. This tends to lessen the number of fires of incendiary origin.

Individual Coöperation

The Bureau of Fire Prevention, unless it has the aid of every citizen, will be able to do very little to reduce the fire loss. There follows a list of twenty-one rules for the guidance of householders and children, drawn up by the Bureau of Fire Prevention. Let us help this bureau by following these rules.


LITTLE MOTHER, WITH HER BROTHER, BURNED TO DEATH
8-Year-Old Margaret Dropped Christmas Tree Candle and Flames Spread Quickly.
N. Y. Times
Dec. 26, 1916.

A Pathetic Headline.

1. Matches should be kept in a metal container away from heat and out of reach of small children.
2. Stovepipes and chimneys should be cleaned frequently and kept in proper repair. All unused stovepipe holes should be covered with a metal cap.
3. Floors under stoves should be protected with metal or other non-inflammable material.
4. Walls, ceilings, and partitions should be protected from burning as a result of their proximity to stoves, furnaces, and pipes.
5. Inflammable rubbish, paper, broken furniture, etc., should be removed from the cellar, attic, and yard to the curb and be placed in bundles or containers, so that

the Street Cleaning Department may cart them away to the dump.

6. Metal containers having covers should be provided for oily rags used to polish furniture, also oil mops, to

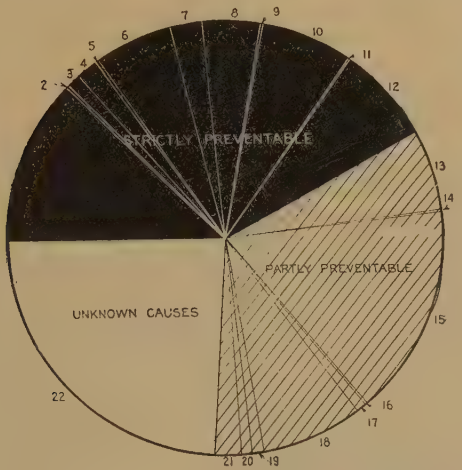
Photo by E. A. Waterman.

A Dangerous Practice.

avoid fire caused by spontaneous combustion (chemical action).

7. The careless smoker should be watched. Notice where he throws matches, cigars, and cigarettes when he has finished them, and put them out yourself if necessary.
8. You should locate the nearest fire-alarm box to your home and learn how to send in an alarm.

9. Hot ashes should be placed in metal containers, kept away from wooden partitions, and not placed on dumb-waiters.
10. Electric irons and heating appliances should be discon-



Courtesy National Board of Fire Underwriters.

WHY OUR DWELLINGS ARE DESTROYED BY FIRE.

Strictly Preventable		Partly Preventable	
1 Defective chimneys and flues	12.4 %	13 Electricity (including careless use of electric flat-irons)	5.9 %
2 Fireworks, firecrackers, etc.	0.1	14 Explosions	0.2
3 Gas, natural and artificial	1.1	15 Exposure (including conflagrations)	15.7
4 Hot ashes and coals, open fires	1.6	16 Sparks from machinery	0.19
5 Ignition of hot grease, oil, tar, wax, asphalt, etc.	0.19	17 Incendiarism	0.67
6 Matches — smoking	5.9	18 Lightning	7.5
7 Open lights	2.3	19 Miscellaneous known causes	0.85
8 Petroleum and its products	4.2	20 Sparks from combustion	1.0
9 Rubbish and litter	0.1	21 Spontaneous combustion	1.8
10 Sparks on roofs	7.1		
11 Steam and hot water pipes	0.06		
12 Stoves, furnaces, boilers and their pipes	7.3		

Unknown Causes

(PROBABLY LARGELY PREVENTABLE)

22 ..... 23.0

nected after use or if the work is interrupted for any reason such as answering the doorbell or telephone.

11. Fire escapes should not be blocked; they should be kept clear and ready for use at all times.
12. You should inspect, with the other members of your family, your own home, so as to know the location of all fire exits, and how to use them.
13. Do not go into dark closets, bedrooms, or cellars with lighted candles or matches. This is a dangerous practice.
14. Kerosene should not be used for lighting fires. Kerosene lamps should be cleaned, filled, and made ready for use in the daytime, not at night after they have been lighted.
15. Do not use lighted candles on Christmas trees. Lives have been lost and many homes made sad because of this practice.
16. The door of the dumbwaiter shaft should not be tied back, as this would cause the spread of fire by making a strong upward draft.
17. Oils, paints, grease, or fats should not be stored in the house.
18. Curtains should be kept away from an open gas flame; the folding gas bracket should be removed from the home, and replaced with those of a rigid type.
19. The use of gasoline, naphtha, or benzine is very dangerous. These chemicals should not be kept in the house.
20. Do not place small gas stoves on tables unless there is metal or asbestos underneath the burners. Stoves should be connected with rigid piping; the use of rubber tubing is dangerous.
21. Do not look for gas leaks with a lighted match or candle; such action is likely to result in an explosion and serious injury.

Despite the efforts of the fire prevention inspectors, there is always danger of fire. It is, therefore, essential that we learn of the best action to take in case of such an emergency.

Action in Case of a Fire

If a fire should occur in your home during the day close the doors of the room in which it starts and thus prevent its spreading to other parts of the house. Notify the other occupants and

A Water-front Fire.

When a fire occurs on or near the water-front an alarm is sent in for a fire-boat.

send in a fire alarm. One should try to be very cool, and quiet. If the fire is not large and you have a fire extinguisher or pails of water available, try to extinguish it. Be sure to keep the doors and windows closed to avoid drafts.

If a fire should occur in your home at night, locate it as quickly as possible by opening the doors of the rooms cautiously. When you have located it, close the door of that room to prevent its

spreading. Arouse the other occupants immediately. Then send in a fire alarm.

If you should be called upon to assist a person whose clothing has taken fire, lay him down and wrap him in a rug, blanket, or anything available that will smother the flames. Be especially careful to keep the smoke and flames away from the mouth and nostrils. Do not allow the person to move or run even if force must be used.

To Send in an Alarm

It is the duty of every one to know how to send in an alarm. There are two types of boxes in use at the present time. The older type, now used only in outlying sections, is operated as follows: Turn the handle to the right until the door opens; then pull down the lever inside of the box, once. Many people in their excitement often make the mistake of forgetting to pull down the lever. Therefore, the city is now going to the expense and trouble of installing a new type of box in which only the outside handle must be turned. This box is thus almost fool-proof. However, remember that you must wait to direct the firemen to the blaze.

We must not forget that fire is not the only enemy against which we need protection. Therefore, let us consider the work of the policeman.

The Police Department of New York City is one of the most widely known organizations. It is composed of about eleven thousand men, whose work is supervised by a Police Commissioner and five deputy commissioners. Each of the deputy commissioners is assigned to oversee the work of a different division of the department.

New York City's Police Department

To become a policeman, it is necessary to pass a civil service examination and in addition a physical test. A number of mental tests must be passed by the prospective officer. After the candidates have passed the prescribed tests, they are appointed on probation for a period of two months. During the probationary period, they are sent to a school of instruction. The intensive training they receive during this period helps to

develop a very high class of officers. They are given instructions in the manual of arms, in soldiery, the laws and ordinances of the city, in regulations and procedure of the Police Department, in court procedure, traffic regulations, first-aid treatments for injured people, and any other branch of service incidental to a policeman's duties.

The work of instruction is divided into two branches, viz., physical instruction and mental instruction. Two hours each

Courtesy of Westinghouse Elec. and Mfg. Co.

FIRE-BOAT IN ACTION IN NEW YORK HARBOR.

day are allotted to physical instruction. Four and one half hours are spent in giving mental instruction.

The five principal duties of the police are:

1. Preservation of peace in the city.
2. Enforcement of all laws.
3. Protection of life and property.
4. Prevention of crime.
5. Detection and arrest of offenders.

The students are drilled in the laws from which the police department derives its powers. They become acquainted with the operation of the city, state, and federal executive depart-

ments. They also are instructed in the relationship of various courts to the Police Department. Written examinations are held and the recruit's standing is determined partly through the results of such tests. Daily homework, consisting of their interpretation of the rules and regulations, reports, and procedure of the department, is examined, corrected, and explained. They receive daily instruction in the handling and use of revolvers and ammunition. They are taught proper methods of handling all types of firearms, particularly the loading and unloading of automatic pistols. They are given instructions in taking and reading finger prints.

There is a moot court where recruits are given instruction in court procedure, in preparation of complaints, in making affidavits, and in preparation of testimony needed in cases to which they are assigned. If, at the end of the probationary school term, the applicant's character has been found satisfactory after investigation and he has progressed sufficiently well in school he is graduated and assigned to a precinct as a uniformed member of the regular force. His permanent appointment will be made four months after this assignment if he can measure up to the requirements of the department.

The Patrolman

The patrolmen are better known than any other men of the department. The patrolman must acquaint himself with people of his post. He must watch for violations of city ordinances. He must be ever helpful to pedestrians requiring aid. He must preserve order, protect juveniles, watch for criminals, and must make every effort to prevent crime. Above all things the patrolman must exercise good judgment and common sense; he must avoid making unnecessary arrests. In accidents, he must remain cool and collected. He shall administer first-aid remedies if good judgment so recommends, or if necessary, shall call for outside aid.

The Traffic Squad

One of the greatest problems with which the Police Department has to contend is the regulation of traffic on city streets. The streets of our city are comparatively safe because of the

careful vigilance exercised by the police. Serious injuries from motor vehicles seem few when one takes into consideration the great volume of traffic and the tremendous number of pedestrians. That the traffic casualties have been kept at such a low figure not only speaks well for the work of the Traffic Squad but also of the numerous mechanical devices, ingenious regulations, safety zones, and safety streets that are now in use. The

LESSONS IN LIFE SAVING. *Photo by Brown Bros.*
Shooting a rope to the roof.

traffic problem is no longer in the experimental stage but has become well systematized.

The policing and mechanical directing of traffic must always remain in the hands of the police, but the problem has attained such importance as to require certain physical alterations and improvements; as the construction of new broad highways; the elimination of elevated structures; the construction of vehicular tunnels; the opening of more one-way streets, and the reservation of certain highways for specific types of motor vehicles. In 1918, it was found that much of the traffic north

and south in Manhattan was along Fifth Avenue and Lafayette Street and as a result these thoroughfares were congested. To relieve this situation, heavy traffic was barred from these streets, which were reserved for light vehicles; heavy vehicles using avenues to the east and west. In 1920, the Police Department inaugurated on Fifth Avenue the so-called flashlight system of traffic regulation, which has proved very successful and efficient in moving traffic. The bronze towers used on Fifth Avenue are no longer an eyesore, but are attractive objects.

Photo by Brown Bros.

ONE OF NEW YORK'S FINEST.

The motorcycle squad has developed into a most efficient part of the traffic division and to it must be given credit for the traffic regulation against speeding together with the execution of all ordinances that cannot be properly attended to by the ordinary patrolman.

The Automobile Squad

This squad maintains a strict surveillance at ferries and at other traffic channels leading out of the city, for the apprehension of automobile thieves and for the recovery of stolen autos. The members of this squad are familiar with methods

used by automobile thieves. Suspected garages and other haunts of auto thieves are constantly kept under surveillance.

The Bomb Trial Squad

This squad is actively engaged in checking up various radical organizations that at times become troublesome to our government. This squad makes a special study of labor strikes and other labor situations that might prove troublesome. It is thoroughly familiar with laws governing labor problems and also makes itself acquainted with the duties and rights of the individuals involved. It makes every effort to avoid unnecessary strike trouble and is constantly warring against rough tactics and the employment of professional pickets and gangsters.

The Industrial Squad

The Gangster Squad

This squad was organized for the purpose of visiting the gathering places of gangsters, thieves, and other undesirable people of the city. It is constantly making raids upon questionable places and placing under arrest individuals who are suspiciously-acting characters. Many violators of the concealed weapon act are arrested. One part of this squad has made a special study of the characters of New York City's underworld and has succeeded in reducing the amount of counterfeiting and bootlegging because of their watchfulness.

The Bureau of Missing Persons

This group has a very important function to perform in a large, cosmopolitan city like New York. The members of this bureau are carefully selected because of special fitness for this specific type of service. The work of the bureau is in the nature of public service and welfare rather than police duty.

Boiler Division

The division is required to inspect all steam boilers in New York City in which the amount of steam carried is over ten pounds to the square inch; but does not include those boilers used for heating or railroad locomotive purposes. Members of this squad pass on applications for engineers' and firemen's licenses. They make their recommendations for the issuing and revoking of licenses.

The Bureau of Public Safety

Our account of the work of the police would not be complete without some reference to the Bureau of Public Safety which was organized in 1923. This bureau was formed in an effort to re-

duce the number of deaths due to street accidents. The work is largely educational. Members give lectures to automobile drivers on "Safety First." Inspections of automobiles are made by the police to discover imperfect brakes.

Photo by Brown Bros.

A Friend in Need.

Coöperation with Other Departments

The Police Department strives to work hand-in-hand with other departments in safeguarding life and property. The co-operation with the Fire Department is very marked in cases of preserving fire lines and making rescues.

Traffic rules which should be heeded by all drivers to insure smaller loss of life and property are as follows:

1. Keep to the right of the road.
2. Pass a machine on its left.
3. Heed the eight-foot stop law.
4. Keep within speed limits.
5. Have your front and rear lights burning after dark.

Be careful and thoughtfully obedient to the city's ordinances and by observance of the rights of others, we can help in making the Police Department of New York, an "army of the finest."

Service of the Weather Bureau Stations in Protecting Life and Property

The United States Government maintains many agencies that guard the lives and protect the property of its citizens. Thus the Weather Bureau is established for the convenience of the people. Every day reports come from every part of the United States to the central bureau in Washington, D. C. At this bureau, learned scientists go over all the reports and issue weather bulletins to farmers and men whose fortunes depend on meteorological conditions. Have you ever stopped to realize what a sudden, unexpected change in the air can do? It can ruin crops, make a lower market for them, freeze flowers, and otherwise do much harm. Information is furnished, free on request, to all who wish to know of the approach of storms, etc.

Service of the Forest Rangers in Protecting Life and Property

A ranger who discovers a forest fire raging immediately telegraphs or telephones the central station. At this station there are numbers of reserves who are always on the watch for fire reports and who are ready to serve when called upon. When a fire is discovered by a forest ranger he tries to summon all people, within the vicinity of the fire, to flee to safety. After this is completed he waits and guides the other men to the scene.

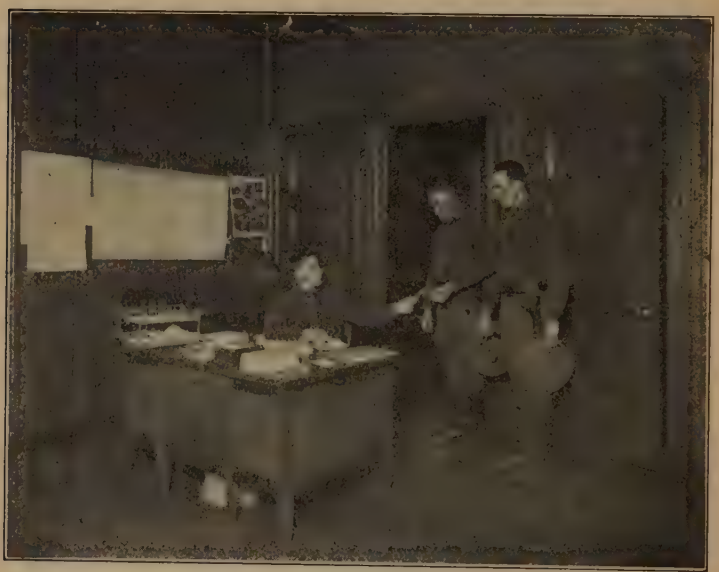
Duties of the Rangers

In order to protect the forests from fire or theft, the government establishes a group of able forest rangers. Their duty is to patrol, and to report and prosecute theft. Another chief function is to organize to fight forest fires before they may get out of control. The work they have been performing has saved millions of dollars and many lives.

The Forestry Board has established rules forbidding the unlawful cutting of trees that are not matured. If lumbermen

Rules

keep on cutting their trees without planting others the forest supply will be gone in a few years. It is only by the encouragement of the Conservation Commission that these forests are preserved. Careless campers are placed under arrest if found destroying trees or causing forest fires. Before a man can become a forest ranger he must pass rigid physical tests and must know how to protect and care for trees. For the benefit of those



NEW YORK STATE POLICE. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

wishing to become a forester or a ranger we have a school, Syracuse University, which offers excellent free courses.

Forestry Schools

Schools are established at Cornell, Michigan, Syracuse, Yale, and other universities, in which the scientific and up-to-date methods of lumbering and planting are taught.

Means for the protection of the trees are also taught. To those who are not able to attend these schools, bulletins and advice are given free of charge

Hardships Encountered by Rangers

Imagine the ranger sleeping out in the woods on a stormy night and civilization about forty miles away. After the storm he continues on his way keeping a keen watch for men who set the forest on fire. The criminals who do this are very hard to catch but they are sooner or later run down by the troopers or the forest men. Rangers endure a hard life and to be one you must have good health and endurance.

Forest Fire and How They Are Controlled

At the central station you will see a different equipment with which to fight fire from that of our city. Instead of hundreds of trucks they have horses. Instead of huge sky-scraper fire fighters they have hundreds of shovels. The men go out to fight the fire armed with shovels and asbestos-lined garments. An emergency kit with a pulmotor, etc., is also taken. After they see the situation, the men go about in a systematic way and make a line of bare ground by turning over the ground. A space of about ten feet is cleared, thus preventing the further spread of the fire along the ground. In this way, forest fires are sometimes extinguished. As the rangers haven't any means for spraying water on the fire from hoses a bucket brigade is formed to spill water over the line that has been formed. When the making of a line beyond the fire becomes useless, the rangers surround the area with dynamite. After every one is at a safe distance a single touch of a button sets the dynamite off. The result is that a large amount of dirt is thrown around the fire. As dirt is not inflammable the spread of the fire is checked.

See what these men do for us? What a criminal the person is who causes a fire in our forests!

Progress in Planting of Trees in United States

In 1685 the first fruit-bearing trees were brought over to the soil by the settlers. The year 1732 finds William and Benjamin Prince bringing over trees and establishing a permanent nursery in America. The residents who now live in the town of Flushing ought to be proud of the fact that they can claim the right to say that Prince established the first nursery in their town. Flushing also has the honor of claiming to be one of the towns

of the United States in which there is that great, beautiful, and picturesque tree, the Cedar of Lebanon.

What We Can Do in Helping the Community to Protect the Trees.

Young trees are eaten by animals which do much grazing. Birds eat the fruit of the tree. Some animals eat the bark from the trees. This leaves the trees in danger of dying from insects.

Protection of Life and Property in Industries

About every six seconds somebody is injured in either a factory, mine, or on a railroad in the United States. The chief cause of accidents is carelessness. The government does much, as we have learned under our topic, "Regulation of Work," to protect us while at work, and protect our health. It would make little difference as to the care and effort the government uses in improving the working conditions of the people, if the employees did not also coöperate in this movement. Mr. Smith saw an advertisement in a newspaper for a young man to work in an iron foundry. After inquiring as to the wages, he accepted the position. In a few months his health broke down and he was forced to leave the position. The government has done much to improve the conditions in these factories, but if people with poor health insist on working in iron foundries, and people with weak lungs seek employment in glass factories, little can be done to protect their lives.

Thus we observe that the city, state, and nation work constantly to protect us against many dangers to our health, lives, and property.

CHAPTER X

CITY PLANNING AND CIVIC BEAUTY

BY

Newtown High School

Congested Traffic

Come with us to a corner of Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street at noon on a Saturday. Watch the vast number of pedestrians moving along the sidewalks. See the numerous policemen trying to hold back those who would cross the street before the traffic signal has been given by the newly acquired towers on the Avenue. There is a man darting his way in and out among the moving vehicles. By some miracle he escapes accident. But how many others have tried to do the same thing and failed, often forfeiting their lives in the effort to save a moment's time! The artistically decorated shop windows catch our attention and we stop to look into some, thus doing our bit toward impeding the traffic. The street is blocked with pleasure cars and busses eight abreast, for it will be remembered that the use of the Avenue by motor trucks and business cars is prohibited. We dread to think of the terrific congestion that would result were they too allowed to make use of Fifth Avenue for transport.

Let us travel on to the financial district of the city, downtown, at five o'clock in the afternoon. The great business houses are just dismissing their employees. It is with great difficulty that we make our way through the crowds which are all moving in one direction. Though it is not late, the skyscrapers allow no sunlight to fall on the streets below them. It is a fact that if the Woolworth Building were emptied of its occupants at one time and all means of transportation blocked, the street upon

which it faces would be several times filled up. We wonder how it is possible for people to traverse such a route twice daily. The city has found it necessary to close certain streets to vehicular traffic during the hours when they are most used by pedestrians. Among these are Nassau Street and Park Row. It is greatly

Photo by Brown Bros.

TRAFFIC AT FIFTH AVENUE AND FIFTY-FIRST STREET.

feared that even more drastic measures may in the future have to be taken.

Theater Crowds

In the evening at theater time, we shall make our way to Broadway, at Forty-second Street. Again we find congestion and we scarcely wonder why, for the bright lights on the sign-boards of the many theaters in that district are surely alluring enough to attract any one. The overcrowded conditions are worst at Times Square where Seventh Avenue with all its traffic meets Broadway. When the theatrical performances are over

and the people return to the street the crowds are sometimes so thick as to make it necessary to request each theater to dismiss its patrons at a different time.

These three scenes give us to a certain degree an idea of the problem that confronts the city. The congestion on Fifth Avenue and on Broadway is due to the lack of a sufficient number of north-south streets above Fourteenth Street. The planners of the more modern part of the city apparently expected traffic to move east to west, from water to water. It so happened that the city grew contrary to their expectations and the consequence is that twelve north-south avenues have proved inadequate to meet the demands of traffic. Downtown the difficulty is due to the narrow and choked streets on which so many tall buildings face. To a considerable extent this might have been avoided had the fathers of the early city exercised more foresight in their plan.

City Planning and Civic Beauty

What is this city planning about which we have heard so much in recent years? Why has it such a strong bearing upon the welfare of the city? City planning has been called "preparation for the future." It is only through planning that a large city like ours can make provision for health, order, convenience, and attractive appearance. Its relation to civic beauty cannot be over-estimated, and we all appreciate what an asset beauty is to a city. The beauty of Paris earns millions of dollars for her annually, while the lack of planning of Chicago has cost her several hundred millions. As one authority on city planning says, we cannot "construct beauty," but we can "beautify construction." The very close association of civic beauty with city planning will soon be seen.

History of City Planning in New York City

Without going too far into the history of city planning, let us review it briefly as it concerns our own city. While Major L'Enfant was busily engaged in mapping out Washington, one of the most attractive cities in the world, by the radial plan of streets whereby they all extended in different directions from the Capitol in the center, the streets of New York City exclud-

ing those already fixed south of Fourteenth Street, were in the process of construction. It seems only natural that the surveyors of New York north of Fourteenth Street should have chosen that same rectangular (checkerboard or gridiron) plan that the largest city in the United States at that time, Philadelphia, possessed. Not only was the plan cheap, easily constructed, and systematic, but it also rendered the levying of

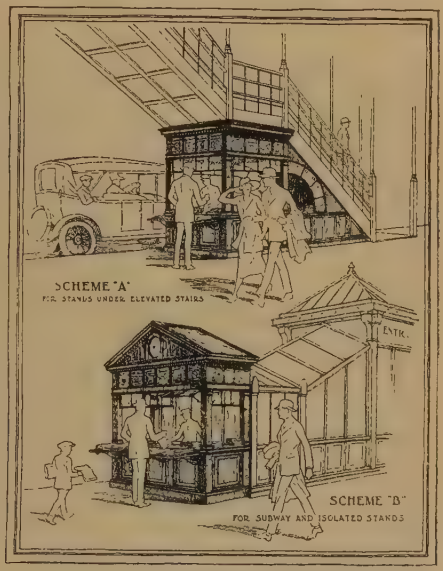
First Lessons in City Planning in a New York City Kindergarten.

assessments a simple process, and enabled strangers readily to find their way.

No one then realized how much time would be lost in the future because of the zigzagging routes made necessary by this plan. In fact, no one foresaw the vast growth destined for the city. The plan should have observed the necessity for rapidity and convenience in future travel and transportation, the increasing need for parks and recreation facilities, and the conservation of land for future public buildings. It should have

taken into consideration the topography of the country, but to a great extent it did not.

Downtown Manhattan was all developed before any adequate plan was thought of. Since the preliminary plan of development there established the directions, in general, that future traffic would be likely to follow, it would have been wise for our predecessors to have improved and extended these most direct streets so as to have made it possible for them to accommodate future travel. As this was not done, it has been necessary in recent years, to restrict any number of down-town streets to one-way traffic. The streets not having been cut symmetrically, it is more difficult to revise them than up-town streets.



Courtesy of Municipal Art Society.

SUGGESTED DESIGNS FOR NEWS-STANDS.

Present Restrictions on Streets

Restrictions, so far as streets are concerned, have been made by the city in intra-urban transit lines. An ordinance forbids the construction of a double-track surface railway in any street that is not forty feet wide between the curbs. It says that no single-track railway may be built where the distance between the curbs is less than thirty feet. To effect these widths no part of the sidewalks may be removed. A street likely to be used by a surface railway must usually have a width of seventy feet at least. If elevated roadways or subways are necessary, the space required for the width of the

street is eighty feet or more. Already sidewalk obstructions have been forbidden and stairways or decorative columns have been moved indoors. These and other means have been taken to relieve traffic congestion which still increases.

Columbus Circle. Approach to Central Park.

The circular plot in the center upon which the monument stands serves as a safety zone for pedestrians trying to cross the bewildering intersecting street railways.

Suggestions for Relief of Congestion

The suggestions made to remedy these have been both plentiful and, for the most part, worthy. The inadequacy of streets to accommodate north- and southbound traffic has been the

greatest problem. It has been proposed that another avenue be cut through to relieve congestion. The expense, however, of such an enterprise, would be appalling and it is doubtful whether the relief secured would be, to any extent, lasting. Many people believe that the transformation of the Sixth Avenue elevated road to an upper roadway would have only beneficial results. Indeed, many think such a practice should not be confined to Sixth Avenue, that it would be successful throughout the city. And if this double-decker means should prove insufficient, there are those who advocate the construction of even another level and the usage of moving platforms at different speeds as a method of travel and transportation. Of course, such improvements would involve the expenditure of an immense sum of money, but if they will be so beneficial to the city in the end, they are at least worth consideration.

More modest means are offered. The widening of streets at the expense of the sidewalks is not only, in some cases, illegal but it seldom proves ultimately economical. The arcades cut through the middle of many blocks of late, relieve sidewalk congestion somewhat. But there are suggested plans for widening of streets by converting the first floors of buildings into sidewalks for pedestrians. These seem feasible. In Paris on the Rue de Rivoli, the system produces an artistic effect, since the fronting on the street is entirely uniform. In the cutting of new streets, it is worth remembering that absolute regularity and straightness are neither essential nor desirable. Curves render roads both beautiful and interesting and take nothing from their usefulness.

The streets of Brooklyn present many difficulties. Not only is Brooklyn the easiest borough of all to get lost in, because there is no logical arrangement in the numbering or naming of streets as in Manhattan, but the absence of a number of connecting links among the half dozen communities that have merged into the present Borough of Brooklyn makes through traffic difficult and vexatious. A notable attempt to correct this con-

dition was the extension of Flatbush Avenue of Brooklyn to the Borough of Manhattan over the Manhattan Bridge. Queens, being a newer borough, has benefited and will benefit even more in the future, by the errors in the planning of the other boroughs. In the cutting of her streets, topography, a factor of considerable importance, is being considered. Perhaps, although it is not

Photo by Brown Bros.

MANHATTAN BRIDGE.

Connecting Bowery and Canal streets, Manhattan, with Nassau and Bridge streets, Brooklyn.

easily foreseen, employment of the means now under consideration in Manhattan will never be necessary.

A dweller in a great metropolis ought to appreciate better than any one else the need for fields of recreation in the open. New York City has always appreciated the æsthetic and health value of parks. The many parks we find scattered through the five boroughs are, however, too centralized. There are too few

small parks, or open spaces of any kind in the crowded districts where they are most needed. It is next to impossible to anticipate demand for park space in a large city.

The safest thing, many authorities agree, is to map out the park system with the street system. It is an excellent plan but one of which we cannot in any great measure take advantage because the greater part of the city is already so thickly settled. In Queens, for example, where the majority of homes are de- **Parks**

Photo by Brown Bros.

BRONX BOTANICAL GARDEN.

tached and are accompanied by garden plots, where the streets are fairly broad, so much park space proportionally is not required. Acquirement of park space under proper direction can be an economical process. The land in Forest Park would have been developed into roads with difficulty and at a great expense. Indeed, the hilly ground, the brooks and creeks, and the tracts of woodland make the park only more picturesque. Needless to say, hills, creek bottoms liable to flood, and tracts of woodland represent obstructions and hindrances to road development. Wild parks with few or no improvements are often the most lovely and the cost of maintaining them, the least.

An excellent instance of foresight on the part of the planners of New York City was the establishment of the great Central Park, a combination of wild and formal parks. The formal or developed parks are usually arranged in the form of a great garden and it is this sort of park that is included in our three

Photo by Brown Bros.

Soldiers and Sailors Monument at Entrance to Prospect Park.

most thickly populated boroughs. Most modern parks, however, are expected to include baseball fields, golf links, facilities for boating, tennis courts, and other sports. Bronx Park and Van Cortland, as well as Prospect in Brooklyn, are combinations of the wild and formal parks.

Public Playgrounds

Another field of recreation, public playgrounds, is a comparatively modern idea. The value of these to the youth of the city can easily be understood. Many of them are under supervision at all times and they are often equipped with basket-ball courts,

running tracks, gymnasiums, wading pools, swings, and sand-boxes for young children. If there were a few more of these in the very crowded districts, even though they should be just breathing spaces for the children, the returns in health would well warrant the expense to the city. With more public playgrounds, the mutilation of shrubs and flowers, and the trespassing on lawns in the formal parks, would undoubtedly be greatly diminished.

Photo by Brown Bros.

WASHINGTON ARCH, WASHINGTON SQUARE, NORTH SIDE.

Parkways and Boulevards

Streets leading to and from parks are commonly called *parkways*. These often have a strip of land in the center devoted to trees, and, while an effective luxury, are one that is most expensive. A lining of shade trees, however, enhances the beauty of a boulevard or parkway greatly, without detracting so much from valuable space, and is, at the same time, an equally healthful acquisition. Parkways should be at once convenient to those likely to seek the enjoyment of parks with an absence of business traffic. Since the boulevards are used chiefly by those

seeking recreation, they ought particularly to be laid out along the most picturesque routes, showing landmarks and places of historical interest, taking in the cooling breezes in the summer season when they are most often traveled. The position of the sun and countless such details should be observed. The advice of an experienced landscape architect is always desirable.

Photo by Brown Bros.

GRANT'S TOMB, RIVERSIDE DRIVE.

Among our finest parkways is the Grand Concourse which serves to unite Manhattan with the parks of the Bronx Park while Pelham Parkway forms a connecting link between Pelham Bay and Van Cortlandt parks. Plans are drawn up for the Interborough Parkway which is to run from Forest Park in Queens to Brooklyn. Eastern Parkway unites Prospect Park

and Cypress Hills. Riverside Drive, which extends along the Hudson River, is one of our most attractive boulevards and the widening of the Queens Boulevard is expected to render it one of the finest in the city.

In the cutting of streets in Queens, provision is being made for the linking together of the numerous communities that comprise this residential borough. Notably valuable is the provision for highways to connect the north and south shores. At

Photo by Brown Bros.

PARK AVENUE.

present, in this respect, the borough is lamentably deficient. Woodhaven Boulevard, when completed, will connect the Rockaways with the north shore of Long Island, intersecting the main arteries of travel running east and west. The city plan also provides adequate width of streets in anticipation of the future growth of the borough. Thus easy flow of traffic, industrial development, and park sites are taken care of. Neverthe-

less, more and better parkways and boulevards are needed to connect the increasing number of parks as well as to improve the civic beauty.

Unification of the City

A difficult problem has been to keep the five boroughs of New York City unified. The rivers intersecting and separating them are serious obstacles to be overcome. Before enough bridges

Photo by Brown Bros.

WILLIAMSBURG BRIDGE, DELANEY STREET, MANHATTAN, TO NEW STREET AND BROADWAY, BROOKLYN.

and tunnels were built to join the boroughs, people residing outside Manhattan were dependent entirely upon ferries to carry them to and from their business. An authority tells us that railroads in seaport cities like New York are too often planned as if there were no other means of transportation. In fact to obtain the cheapest and most successful results it is advisable that all transit facilities be modeled to make connections, in some way, with others. Since Manhattan, as we have said, could not

domicile all those working there, laborers were forced to migrate to the outskirts of the city for their homes. Ample and cheap transit facilities became necessary to accommodate these people.

The first means undertaken to gain unity in the city was the construction of bridges, and the bridges of New York City are indeed a source of pride to every New Yorker. The Brooklyn Bridge, over the East River, connecting Manhattan with Brooklyn, a remarkable achievement in engineering, is one of the most celebrated suspension bridges in the world, not only because of

Bridges

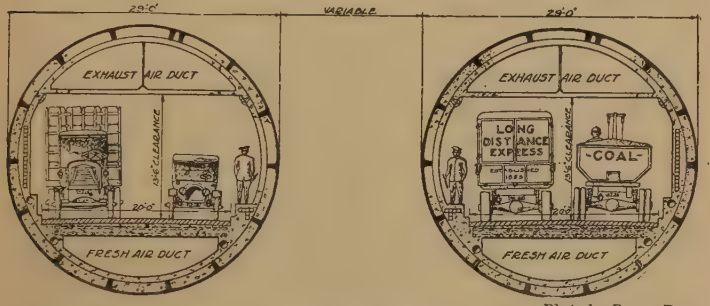


Photo by Brown Bros.

CROSS SECTIONS OF HUDSON RIVER VEHICULAR TUNNEL, BROOME STREET IN MANHATTAN TO 14TH AND PROVOST STREETS IN JERSEY CITY.

its technical features and beauty, but because of its situation. Not far from the Brooklyn Bridge is the Manhattan Bridge, also a masterpiece in suspension-bridge construction. The Williamsburg Bridge, about one and one half miles farther up the river, is larger than either the Brooklyn or Manhattan bridges though not so well placed. Another of our most beautiful and famous bridges is the Queensborough which crosses the same river, connecting Queens with Manhattan. Although Queens Boulevard, now being improved, forms a very pretty approach to the bridge, the Manhattan entrance as yet is neither artistic nor practical. Numerous smaller bridges cross the Harlem River and connect the Bronx with Manhattan.

Even bridges proved inadequate to satisfy the demands of

Tunnels

Interborough transit and the construction of tunnels under the rivers was begun. These aided greatly in uniting the different sections of the city because the speed of trains far exceeds that of boats. The new Vehicular Tunnel to New Jersey, now under construction, is an experiment the value of which cannot well be estimated until the completion of the work. Without doubt, however, it will greatly relieve the traffic on ferries and prove an

Photo by Brown Bros.

HELL GATE BRIDGE. 141ST STREET, BRONX, TO ASTORIA, LONG ISLAND.

The construction of this bridge has made through service possible between Boston and points in the South.

excellent means of uniting the principal borough of our city with New Jersey. Only very recently dirt was shoveled to mark the beginning of the digging of the Staten Island Tunnel through the Narrows. Thus the least-populated of the five boroughs, Richmond, will be more closely connected with Brooklyn and the other boroughs.

Other Means of Unification

Besides these, Manhattan has electric cars running the length of the Island on several of her principal avenues, abundant crosstown lines, and a very complete system of elevated railway lines running from South Ferry to The Bronx. It is hoped, however, that, for the sake of the health and beauty of the city at least, these elevated lines, most of which are antiquated, may be replaced by some pleasanter means of travel. There are the Fifth Avenue and other bus lines. Busses have the advantage of being free-wheeled vehicles even though they help crowd the streets. Subway lines lead north to The Bronx and under the East River to Brooklyn and Queens. Subways seem to be the most acceptable form of interborough rapid transit and plans for their extension have been drawn up by the Board of Estimate and the Transit Commission.

Conditions before the Zoning Law

A few years ago, the manufacturing concerns and the factories in Manhattan began to move uptown into the department store district. The workers in the factories filled the nearby streets in the early morning, at the noon hour, and at five in the afternoon. Shoppers were seriously hindered, if they were not prevented entirely, from approaching the department stores because of the great crowds in the streets. The stores began to lose their patrons. Matters grew worse and worse. Department store owners got together to think up some plan to meet the situation.

Finally they formed a commission called the "Save New York Committee" and we shall presently see what it accomplished. Until very recently, too, the owner of an attractive house ran the risk of having erected alongside of him a public garage, a large department store, or some equally undersirable structure. He might have been protected by some private agreement or restriction for a while but such arrangements are not permanent. Not long ago the Equitable Building on Broadway was built. This structure is nearly fifteen times as high as the street north of it is wide. It casts a perpetual shadow on the street and on the surrounding buildings.

A few years ago all these conditions existed, but they do no more. The Zoning Act has been passed. Since the city obtains its charter from the state, the approval of the State Legislature was necessary for the passage of the bill.

The Zoning Act

The Zoning Act restricts both the area and the height of buildings, which are determined by the width of the streets on which they face and, most important of all, it restricts the purpose for which buildings are to be used. The buildings now being built, while they have not the dormers and gables of European countries, are all, as they are made higher, set back a certain number of feet so as to admit sunlight. This feature relieves monotony and adds to beauty as well.

The law segregates buildings with regard to their use into three definite zones. The first includes residences, churches, schools, libraries, and the like, and excludes business houses of all kinds. The second is composed of all business buildings except those that are offensive or harmful to others, like factories. Upon the third zone, no restrictions are placed. Thus residences and churches may be erected anywhere, shops may be erected in the second and third zones, and factories may be erected only in the third zone. The true value of the law can be appreciated only by those acquainted with Manhattan although this legislation greatly affects every one of us.

The Civic Center

In city planning it has been found essential to locate certain areas for particular purposes. Hence the term "centers." The Zoning System is of the utmost importance in the locating of centers. While some consider the present civic center of New York City unworthy to be so-called, it includes, nevertheless, some fine buildings. The City Hall since its recent restoration stands out as one of the choicest. Originally constructed in the early part of the nineteenth century, it still stands in a small triangular park, surrounded by some of the tallest skyscrapers of a city famed for its high buildings. Bridging a nearby street stands the comparatively new Municipal Building, a structure of most imposing grandeur. At one vertex of the triangular

Photo by Underwood and Underwood.

A CENTURY OF INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS.

The old City Hall in the foreground. The new Municipal Building in the background.

City Hall Park is the old Post Office, one of the finest of the older buildings, and not far away is situated the County Courthouse. Movements have been under way for several years to have both

of these removed and there is planned a magnificent hexagonal courthouse. Located nearby and included in the civic center is also the Hall of Records. Each of the five boroughs, besides,

PROPOSED CIVIC CENTER, SHOWING NEW COURT HOUSE NOW UNDER CONSTRUCTION, CITY HALL PARK, MANHATTAN.

has in existence or in the process of construction its own individual civic center.

The untiring efforts of the aforementioned "Save New York Committee" have been rewarded by the provision of the Zon-

ing Act which locates the manufacturing district south of the Pennsylvania Station (Thirty-second Street and Seventh Avenue), and business centers around Broadway and Fifth Avenue north of Thirty-second Street. Wall Street, downtown, is the center of the financial district, while lack of accommodation in the harbor of lower New York prevents us from having any

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THE AMERICAN INDIAN MUSEUM.

This museum stands at Broadway and 155th Street. It contains 1,800,000 Indian relics.

particular commercial center. As for transportation centers, we have Grand Central Station from which one may travel to almost any part of the city. The Long Island Railroad terminates in the Pennsylvania Station which ranks a close second in importance to the Grand Central Station. In Brooklyn transportation is centered at the Atlantic Avenue terminal. Educational centers group around Columbia University, New York

Other Centers

University, and the College of the City of New York. Broadway near Times Square, needless to say, constitutes our chief amusement center. All these centers, like the civic center, exist, on a smaller scale, in every borough.

Public Buildings

For the most part, the public buildings of New York City are prepossessing neither in setting nor design. When new buildings are being constructed, city planners usually consider it wise to locate them so that each will preserve its individuality even though all may be grouped together. Most of our finest buildings, however, with the exception of those at City Hall Park, stand alone. In a small park at Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue, is the magnificent public library building. About midway up the east side of Central Park is situated the Metropolitan Museum of Art. These together with the Museum of Natural History at West Seventy-seventh Street represent some of our finest architecture. While the Pennsylvania Station is equally as fine a structure as the Grand Central, its setting is not nearly so picturesque. On a bluff in Morningside Park, overlook-

EXAMPLE OF FAVORABLE SETTING FOR MONUMENT.

Statue of Nathan Hale, City Hall Park.

ing Harlem Plains, stands the Cathedral of St. John the Divine. Not only because of its beauty of design, but also because of its superb situation, it is expected to take its place among the finest churches of the world. Our hotels, clubs, theaters, besides many great office buildings, are instrumental in adding to the civic beauty of New York.

EXAMPLE OF UNFAVORABLE SETTING FOR MONUMENT.
Statue of Abraham Lincoln, Union Square.

Monuments

Because of the strong relation it bears first to the beauty of our city, and subsequently to the great effect produced upon the tastes of its people, and the impression created upon visitors, the subject of monuments is not one to be treated lightly. Better far to have too few statues than too many, especially if they are not constructed and placed in harmony with their surroundings and worthy of the causes they commemorate. New York's most impressive monument is the bronze statue of Liberty Enlightening the World on Bedloe's Island in the harbor. The

Tomb of General Grant, a marble temple at the northern end of Riverside Park is one of the most conspicuous monuments in the vicinity. The Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument on Riverside Drive at Eighty-ninth Street and the Soldiers' and Sailors' Memorial Arch, which stands at the beautiful Plaza entrance of Prospect Park, Brooklyn, are works of art. In addition, there are numerous bronze and marble figures such as "Sherman Led by Victory" on the Plaza at Fifth Avenue, all worthy of mention were there space.

Photo by Brown Bros.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Wall Street with Trinity Church in the distance.

The Harbor

While our harbor even now, with the superb Statue of Liberty and the skyline of skyscrapers presents a very pleasing aspect, if the plans of the Port of New York Authority are carried out, the result will be a glorious approach. The Commission proposes extending the port to Jamaica Bay and even over to the coast of New Jersey, since Jersey City and Hoboken, though not included

in Greater New York, are nevertheless by nature a part of the larger unit. When the extensions are eventually made, there will be more room to develop the shore line artistically.

"Le debarcadère" at Geneva, Switzerland, forms a veritable picture with an artistic design of green grass and hedges. Along

A Suggestion

Photo by Brown Bros.

General William T. Sherman.

the waterfront at Lucerne, are lines of catalpa trees, all connected. The effect produced by this simple arrangement is most striking. A little such landscape gardening along Battery Park and other points on our waterfront would be of immense æsthetic value. In the near future, we hope such improvements will be made.

Markets

A worthy topic given not half enough thought is our markets. It is most essential that these be situated near railroad terminals and boat landings so that all produce will be fresh when sold. Yet the only market in Manhattan at present that has connections with a railway is the West Washington. At the same time, markets should be accessible to, if not near, residential sections. The two retail markets are Washington Market on Fulton Street and Jefferson Market in Greenwich Village. There are few people who would want them near their homes. Yet markets, like everything else, can be made attractive with some little planning. There is certainly something appealing about fresh vegetables, if they are kept where it is clean, neat, and cool. Practically all European cities have markets in the public streets and the beauty of these thoroughfares does not seem to be marred as a result.

Photo by Brown Bros.

JOAN OF ARC, RIVERSIDE DRIVE.

There is in the City of New York a Municipal Art Com-

mission composed of architects, sculptors, artists, and others which passes upon all civic structures. To this Commission we are indebted for the choice of the artistic cluster lighting system that illuminates Central Park, Fifth Avenue, and other parts of the city. The traffic towers on Fifth Avenue, a gift of the Fifth Avenue Association, add as much to the beauty of the city as to the relief of congestion. The Public Art Commission is responsible for the removal of billboards for advertisements and other eyesores. In short, with this Public Art Commission rests largely the fate of the city's appearance. The Commission solicits private contributions, encourages discussion, and aims to arouse public opinion so as to influence municipal action in regard to such matters as billboards, receptacles for refuse, memorials, and decorations for public buildings.

The Municipal Art Commissio

The importance of city planning in aiding to unify the various parts of New York City and to cultivate its beauty cannot be overestimated. Although much has been accomplished in recent years, many problems still remain, either half-solved or not touched upon. We must depend upon the younger generation not only to carry out the suggested projects but also to make more and better suggestions, for the relief of congestion and for beautifying the city. The coöperation of all, young and old, must be sought in the protection of the city's parks and recreational centers, and in preventing the accumulation of litter in public places. Not only must we obey the laws concerning public property but it is also our duty to see to it that our associates do likewise. Let us have every week a "Save Our Parks" week, every week a "Clean-up" week, every week a "Civic Improvement" week, for that is the only way to make New York a model city.

CHAPTER XI

COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION

BY

Wadleigh High School

Communication

Communication problems have occupied the minds of men since the beginning of civilization. How to get into closer touch with one's neighbors was a vital question then; it is a vital question still. The ancients' solution of this problem was effected through the use of fire, smoke, and flags. After this, other means of communication were developed by the employment of couriers. Then, gradually, the postal service came into existence.

Since its establishment in our country it has expanded with great rapidity. From the seventy-five post offices in Washington's time the postal service has grown to such an extent that there are, at present, fifty-two thousand stations. A letter, requiring only two cents postage from New York to San Francisco, arrives there in five days. Some means employed for expeditious transportation of mail are motor trucks, pneumatic chutes, and airplanes. The post office, moreover, issues domestic and foreign money orders, maintains a postal savings bank, and has established a parcel-post department which is of very great service, especially to the farmer, since it aids him to ship his products to consumers swiftly and safely. Also, parcels and letters may be insured or registered, the government being then responsible in case of loss or damage.

Postal Service

Thus we see that the postal service is "A carrier of news and knowledge, an instrument of trade and industry, a promoter of

mutual acquaintance and of peace and good-will among men and nations." The postal service has formed the first great link in the chain that tends to draw together more closely the people of the world.

Telephone

The next best thing to seeing a person is hearing his voice. Of course, to telephone to a friend is now an everyday affair. But great difficulty was involved in the original construction of this

Photo by Brown Bros.

UNCLE SAM TAKING CARE OF YOUR LETTERS.

faithful instrument and friend of ours. Alexander Graham Bell set himself to thinking and working and only with limitless patience and effort did he finally evolve the telephone. Consider for a moment a few of the uses to which the telephone may be put. Medical assistance can be quickly procured by its use, important business transacted, engagements canceled, others made, police aid secured, and even firemen's service called into play. The telephone, one of the most strongly fashioned links

in the chain, is exercising and will continue to exercise great influence on humanity.

Telegraph

Another means of modern communication, the telegraph, was invented by Professor Morse. (The first line, from Washington to Baltimore, was constructed in 1844.) The telegraph is the most convenient method of sending a long distance message in very short time. The telegraph served to unite the people of the United States but not satisfied with that, the men who

A Busy Telephone Exchange.

devoted their lives to its invention laid the Atlantic Cable also. The main credit for this is due Cyrus Field and his associates. During the World War the cable came into great use. Messages are sent continually across the ocean. The cable has helped tremendously in establishing a social and commercial bond between the two hemispheres.

The most wonderful method of telegraphing is that done with the wireless, invented by William Marconi. The wireless has become almost indispensable on the high seas. Every ship is equipped with one. When in distress it sends an S. O. S. signal,

which summons almost immediate help, often saving lives and cargoes of great value. The wireless, then, forms another link that binds all parts of the world together.

THE ANTENNAE OF RADIO BROADCAST CENTRAL STATIONS WJZ AND WJY ON AEOLIAN HALL BUILDING, WEST 42ND STREET.

The only dual broadcasting station in the country. The building in the foreground is the New York Public Library.

Radio

A still different invention, but similar in constructive principles to the wireless and telephone, is the radio. Just consider how far-reaching is the influence it exerts. President Coolidge recently delivered a speech in Washington to an audience in New York and at the same time owners of radio sets throughout the entire United States heard him. The field for radio progress is

RADIO AFLOAT. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

great. In a more perfect state it is to become invaluable to humanity.

Press

Last, but not least, comes a very potent factor in our daily existence, the press. By means of the multiple press, millions of copies of newspapers are made in a day. Through them one learns of the political, social, and economic problems of all the world. By true articles, much good can be accomplished. On the other hand, great evil is done by the so-called "yellow press." The press is one of the greatest links in the great chain we have

mentioned, and exerts most powerful influence for good or for evil.

Advantages of Communication

Just a word or two, now, concerning the vast importance and advantage of these wonderful systems of communication. In the first place, commerce has increased, because business can be accomplished quickly at any time whatsoever. Next, travel has greatly increased, because there is no need now to fear the hardships and privations of a journey. Again, the saving of time and effort through improved means of communication has made it possible for us to give some attention to the beauty and joy of living, instead of the making of our existence a daily round of bustle. However, the greatest importance of these inventions lies in the fact that they have forged a closer bond between communities. People of one community can no longer remain in ignorance of the affairs of neighboring groups. The space between them has practically been annihilated. Thus, the chain of communication, composed of so many potent links, will finally embrace all the people in the world and this contact is bound to teach them the value of common interest and fellowship.

Transportation

Now let us consider transportation facilities in the United States. First of all there is our shipping industry. Trans-Atlantic trade has become the most important of its branches because of the vast amount of traffic and the length of the voyage. Vessels of great size have been built, which make the trip in a few days. Today, facilities are good, rates are not exorbitant, dangers are few, speed is rapid and a lively intercourse with other nations is kept up.

The railroads, too, play an important part in transportation. Barring the airplane, they form the swiftest means of traveling. Passengers, mail, and freight are carried by the trains. Interstate commerce depends almost wholly upon them and they are responsible for the binding together of the United States.

In 1869, when Grant was President, the first transcontinental road was completed. Now there are eight such roads. In-

deed, over half the railroad mileage of the world is in the United States. A vital problem today is that of the control and regulation of these railroads. Upon its wise solution depends the welfare of our country.

Suburban Roads

Suburban roads are important as being the connecting links between the city and its suburbs. The suburb is important and beneficial since it acts as a check on the overcrowding of the city and forms an outlet for a portion of its population, affording an

The Twentieth Century Limited of the New York Central Lines.
"The greatest train in the world."

opportunity for living that is often more hygienic and less costly than life in the city proper.

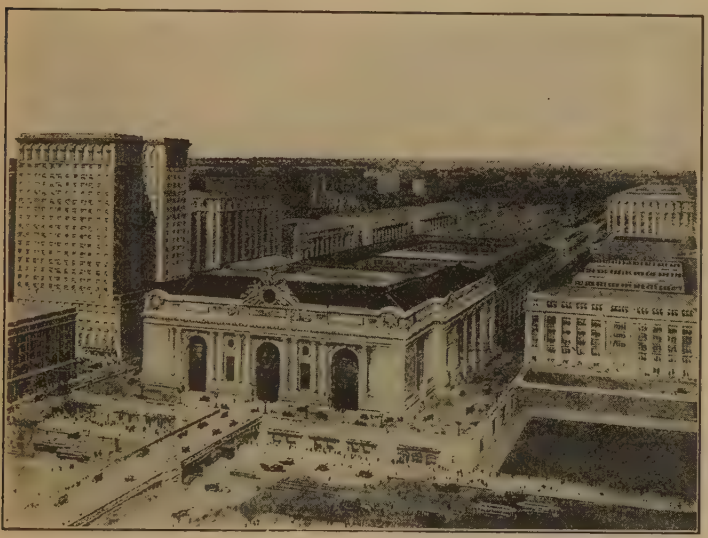
Automobiles

The motor vehicles, too, are important. Motor vehicles include carriages for the transporting of passengers, and trucks for the transporting of freight, such trucks being fitted to run on the streets and highways without tracks. Food, coal, building materials, fire apparatus, and all heavy articles are carried by them. It is unprofitable for the railroads to carry such heavy goods short distances and so the truck does this work. Aside

from its utility, the automobile may be said to provide more personal pleasure than any other sort of vehicle.

Good Roads

The extensive use of motor vehicles has opened people's eyes to the importance of good roads. Motor trucks and autos are dependent upon them. It has been ascertained that on the unimproved country road it costs twenty-three cents to carry a ton a mile, but on the improved road the cost is only thirteen



GRAND CENTRAL TERMINAL. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

cents. From this we see how essential good roads are to rural transportation.

Airplanes

The airplane supplies the fastest method of transportation. Formerly great danger was attached to it, and it is still somewhat hazardous. Airplanes are important factors in quick travel; they are important in the delivery of mail. Great though their significance, they are not yet extensively used to personal advantage, as are the automobiles, but there is great hope in them for the future.

New York a Great Center

New York, in the middle of the Atlantic seaboard, has wonderful natural harbors. Ships sail in and out of them incessantly. The fact that ours is an immigration port adds to the excessive population of our city. New York is connected with the Great Lakes by the Barge Canal and so becomes a great center of inter-state business. It is also the principal depot through which United States imports and exports pass. New York has railroads to and from all parts of the country. But for the locomotive we would not have Florida oranges on our

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EXTERIOR OF PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD STATION, 7TH AVENUE AND 33RD ST., MANHATTAN.

breakfast table only two days after they have been picked, nor could there reach us in less than a week, the luscious fruits of California.

Rapidity and cheaper rates of transportation result from improved facilities. These in turn allow the producer and the middleman to reduce the cost of the articles transported. In many cases, where articles in one section are scarce and poorly made, good transportation allows the consumer to buy outside products reasonably. Travel also is encouraged by low rates and better facilities.

The average American wants to travel even if only a short distance; he wants to see new things, to obtain new ideas. Knowledge of different places broadens the mind, and educates. In the days of stage-coaches the people of Boston knew little of the inhabitants of New York except by report from the very few who had ventured upon the long and tiresome journey. Upon **Travel**

Photo by Brown Bros.

INTERIOR OF PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD STATION.

these travelers fell the task of instructing their neighbors concerning the outside world. But today, by means of our modern transportation, people can travel, quickly and cheaply, and inform themselves. This not only affords interest and amusement to the traveler, but promotes, through intercourse, closer relations between communities.

In fact, communication and transportation today form the basis of our modern civilization and the one great difference be- **Benefits**

tween the man of today and the savage is our extensive communication facilities.

Transportation has made cities, has connected and unified groups of men; it has provided us with food, clothing, and luxuries; it has opened up opportunities for commerce, immigration, and travel. Is it any wonder that we look upon it as a most important phase of modern life?

The City's Streets

The Use of City Streets

One of the first needs of any community is good roads and streets so that people may move about freely. The streets of a city serve as great arteries through which the city's blood, its business, its very life, may flow. Also, they are sometimes meeting-places for masses of people and, sometimes, unfortunately, the playgrounds of the city's children, when other space is not available. Since the streets are of such vital importance to us, it is necessary to give them the greatest care possible.

Not only does the surface of the city provide thoroughfares for its population, but also the super-surface and the sub-surface must help in this essential work. On the street level are cars, busses, and automobiles. Above the surface there are elevated structures upon which trains of cars are operated. Below the surface we find subways, water mains, sewers, gas mains, conduits for electric light, and telephone and telegraph wires. Permission to use city property for these utilities is granted on two conditions: first, definite service must be performed for the people; second, general use of the streets by all the people must not be curtailed in any way.

Franchises

A franchise to use the streets for any such special purpose is granted to a public utility corporation by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Such a franchise is a contract between the city and the company, indicating the period during which the privilege holds and stating what charges the corporation may impose on its patrons.

There is a disadvantage in having mains or conduits under the streets. The hard, well-paved streets must be torn up every time repairs are needed. It is very difficult to repair the street satisfactorily, to say nothing of hindrances to traffic with their attendant inconveniences and danger to the public during the process of repair.

Among the many powers of the Borough President is that of granting, with the approval of the Committee on City Plan and Public Improvements, a permit for the opening of a new street. The work of construction, then, is carried out by the Department of Public Works, which has charge of all street paving and repairing.

Kinds of Paving

Streets should be paved according to the kind of traffic that prevails in the different localities. Obviously it is unwise to use a single kind of pavement for all streets of a great city. The most popular material for paving streets in the residential sections is asphalt. Asphalt can be used for a street over which there is to be automobile traffic and for the congested quarters of the city where the amount of dirt in the streets is unusual, because this type of pavement is easily cleaned. In the business streets, where the traffic is heavy, granite blocks are more serviceable. This type of paving is especially desirable if a street is hilly and likely to become slippery in winter. Wooden blocks are now used a great deal as pavement, because they cause less noise than other material. Macadam is the cheapest kind of pavement but is rarely used in the city. Wooden blocks and granite paving are the most expensive but also the most durable. The cost of paving a street is paid by special assessments on properties that benefit by the improvement. The property owner pays according to the width of his lot. He is not required to pay this all at one time, although he may do so if he chooses. However, future repairs are made at the expense of the city.

Permits are granted for such uses of the streets as parades and block parties. Permits are also granted to builders or construction companies, allowing them to pile their materials on the

streets. This, however, is a source of great inconvenience to the public. Certain streets known as play streets are closed to traffic. Here the children may play without fear of danger from passing automobiles or trucks.

Care of Sidewalks

Every owner or person in charge of a building or of a lot has to take care of the sidewalks belonging to that property,

Photo by Brown Bros.

QUEENSBORO BRIDGE, 59TH STREET, MANHATTAN, TO QUEENS PLAZA, LONG ISLAND CITY.

seeing to it that they are kept in repair and free from dirt and snow.

The Bridges

The situation of Manhattan makes it necessary to have a great many bridges in order to accommodate the interborough traffic. With a few exceptions, the bridges of New York are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Plant and Structures. The first of the great bridges over the East River,

Brooklyn Bridge, was opened in 1885. The second, known as the Williamsburg Bridge, was opened to traffic in 1903. The Queensboro Bridge was built next, and still later Manhattan Bridge.

The Tunnels

There are many important tunnels in New York City. Among them are the Hudson Tubes, which have helped greatly in lessening transit difficulties. These run from the terminal at Cortlandt and Church streets, Manhattan, to the Pennsylvania Station in Jersey City and to the station in Hoboken. A vehicular tunnel, proposed to relieve congestion in the harbor,

Photo by Brown Bros.

PROPOSED HUDSON RIVER BRIDGE AT 59TH STREET.

is now under construction. It will be of great benefit to both New York and New Jersey when it is completed, as it is expected that a vast number of freight and passenger vehicles will pass through it. The tunnel is a double one with two openings on each side of the river, two in New York and two in New Jersey, one for east-bound and the other for west-bound vehicles.

These streets, tunnels, and bridges form one mighty system by which each borough carries on its own business and interborough business as well, and by which the great city is connected with its suburbs across the waterways.

New York's Traffic Problem

Traffic Problem

How many times have you stood in a congested section and said to yourself, "Goodness, why don't they do something about those automobiles? Why isn't there some safe place for the pedestrian?" When one stops to realize that almost 6,000,000

Photo by Brown Bros.

The Promenade of the Brooklyn Bridge Looking toward Brooklyn.

The network of steel cables makes one think of a spider's web. It has been said that the web of this animal first suggested the idea of a suspension bridge.

people crowd into our city and that over half of these people use automobiles either for business or for pleasure, on its streets, there is little wonder that such congestion exists.

The city has a great problem to solve when it attempts to untangle traffic, and the causes for this problem are many.

First of all, we must consider the shape of New York. Does it not remind you of a great funnel? The uptown residential section is the yawning mouth, whereas the downtown section comprises the long thin neck. Now there is a cause for the most congested sections being in the neck of the funnel. New York was originally settled in the southern end of the island. Then after the Civil War the elevated structures were built and men began

Photo by Brown Bros.

HIGH BRIDGE, UNIVERSITY AVENUE, BRONX, TO 174TH STREET, MANHATTAN.

moving their families up into the newer section of the city while they kept their business down in the old part. So, as the city grew, no one gave a thought as to whether it was growing conveniently for the coming generations. Like Topsy, the city "just growed." Then when immigrants came over to New York they naturally grouped in certain sections of the city. This gave rise to congestion in some sections whereas other sections were left only sparsely populated. So a second cause of

our traffic problem was the formation of foreign colonies at inconvenient points.

With the growth of our city came the desire to build edifices higher and higher. There are sections downtown where the very high buildings contain so many people that at specified hours no vehicular traffic is allowed in order that these people may enter and leave their respective office buildings.

You have all noticed that industry in New York is localized; that is to say, one kind of industry is located in one neighborhood and another kind in another. For example, we find that clothing is manufactured approximately in the district between Thirty-second Street and Eighteenth Street, from Fourth to Seventh Avenues. The readers should not misunderstand and think that in no other section is clothing manufactured, but the majority of clothing factories can be found in the section mentioned. It can easily be seen how such localization affects traffic. These factories employ many thousands of people. Congestion necessarily follows the crowd.

Vehicular traffic is also affected by this localization in that the various materials needed in many factories are delivered by automobile trucks, which sometimes block the roads in great numbers. Still another reason for the seriousness of this problem is the enormous increase of New York's evergrowing population.

Work of Police

The handling of this complicated matter is entrusted to the Police Department, which has created various devices for carrying out the work. A well-trained traffic squad is most important and when the policeman at the crossing blows his whistle once, north and south bound traffic proceeds, east and west bound traffic stops; two whistles indicate that east and west bound traffic should proceed, and that north and south bound should stop. Three or more whistles stop all traffic and announce the approach of fire apparatus or other danger. In addition to men who are stationed at crossings, there are motor-cycle policemen who pursue speeding automobiles. The traffic squad is indis-

pensable during parades and street meetings. During the St. Patrick's Day Parade and similar great parades from ten to fifteen policemen are stationed on each side of every block along Fifth Avenue from Twenty-third Street to One Hundred and Tenth Street.

Traffic rules are very explicit. They are divided into eight sections, thus:

1. Passing, Turning, Keeping to the right, Backing and Following.
2. Stopping, Standing, Waiting, and Parking.
3. Overtaking Street Cars.
4. Right of Way.
5. Signals.
6. Speed.
7. Restrictions in Regard to Vehicles.
8. Control, Treatment, and Condition of Horses.

Under (1) the following rule is found: "A vehicle turning into a street to the right shall turn the corner as near the right hand curb as practicable." The necessity for such a rule is by no means obscure when we consider the extent of our traffic. As a preface to the pamphlet of rules for vehicles there is a set of rules for pedestrians, one item being: "Cross the street at right angles, preferably at a crossroad; and, where a traffic policeman is stationed, wait for his signal." These rules, with the help of our traffic squad, have proved themselves invaluable.

Traffic Towers

Another potent factor in controlling traffic is the traffic tower. Its appearance may be judged from the accompanying pictures. Heretofore the towers have been made of wood, but in the latter part of 1922 the wooden tower at Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, our busiest crossing, was replaced by a handsome bronze one, the gift of the Fifth Avenue Business Men's Association. The design for this tower was selected from several submitted in an international contest. Now all the towers are constructed after this pattern.

These towers, of which there are seven, are located on Fifth Avenue at intervals of about eight blocks. The most northerly is at Fifty-seventh Street and the most southerly at Fourteenth Street. They are situated on the north side of the crossing, midway between the sidewalks running north and south. In each tower sits a member of the traffic squad, protected from the weather and having a clear field for action. The side of the tower facing north and the side facing south are equipped with huge lights—the one red, the other green. Let us suppose that the green light is "on," facing the north-and-south thoroughfare. This light means "go." In a few minutes the red light flashes. The policeman in the center of the crossing blows his whistle. Traffic stops. He blows his whistle a second time. The red light indicates that traffic is moving on the east-and-west thoroughfare. All traffic may be stopped instantly by flashing red lights in all directions. This makes it possible to give fire-apparatus and ambulances the right of way. In each tower there is a telephone so that word of the traffic standstill may be transmitted to the towers ahead. The tower system is most interesting and valuable.

Photo by Brown Bros.

A Traffic Tower.

Another important asset in traffic control, especially in sections where the streets are narrow, is the one-way street. White signs in the shape of arrows are fastened to posts along the street. The arrows show the proper direction for traffic. The one-way street was inaugurated in New York in the spring of 1908, but it was first used in Pompeii. This ancient Roman city erected signs showing a picture of a chariot moving in the proper direction. So, you see, one-way streets are only another proof that "history repeats itself."

Safety Zones

All the foregoing devices have been designed to regulate vehicular traffic as well as pedestrian traffic. But the safety zone is especially for the benefit of pedestrians. At important points, where trolley cars stop, are situated these safety zones. A number of sign-posts, usually three or four, are set up several feet from one another. They form a line parallel to the tracks and several feet away from them. The space between the sign-posts and the tracks is the "safety zone." Within this zone no vehicle may pass. At a crossing where the distance from one sidewalk to the other is very great, as at Columbus Circle, triangular zones are marked off by safety zone sign-posts. These serve as an intermediate refuge from the stream of vehicles.

Plans for Relief

Men acquainted with our traffic conditions are constantly devising means for relief. Police Commissioner Harris thinks that one hundred years from now New York City's population will be 25,000,000. In view of this prospective increase in population he suggests the building of three crossways, each three hundred and sixty feet wide. They are to extend from the North to the East rivers; one in the Forty-second Street district, one between Twenty-third and Forty-second Streets, one between Chambers and Fourteenth Streets. These crossways are to connect with marginal ways encircling Manhattan Island and leading to Long Island and New Jersey. Carrying out this project would entail a total cost of about fifty million dollars and the tearing down of many buildings. Other plans more or less practicable are constantly being suggested.

How to Help

Since the city does so much for the citizen, both pedestrian and vehicle driver, the least each citizen can do is to coöperate. He should not complain of congestion in the principal thoroughfares during rush hours but should consider it his own personal duty to become acquainted with the traffic laws and obey them, and urge others to do likewise.

Transit Facilities in New York City

Transit

The importance of the vast and complex question of transit in New York City cannot be over-emphasized, for has not the establishment of New York as queen city been due primarily to the divers improvements in transportation? Travel is related to all the arts and activities of man, and so, good transit conditions are essential to every one. The different convenient means of transportation in New York, all too little appreciated by its inhabitants, are, nevertheless, set up as models for the rest of the world to follow.

In reviewing transit facilities of the City of New York, let us first consider the surface lines. Before any other methods of traveling had been introduced, the street car was naturally of the utmost importance. Connections were so arranged that nearly every point of the Greater City could be reached by a trolley car. Later, when elevated lines and subways came into existence, street-cars, although of diminished importance, still remained of great service, either as conveniences in traveling short distances, or as the means of bringing one to some station of the subways or elevated road.

However, as time went on, and the city became more densely populated, people began to criticize the street-car system, asking why there was more service running east and west along cross-streets than north and south along the busier thoroughfares. The answer to this, of course, was that the routes of travel, when planned, had been laid with the idea that the city would gradually grow across the Hudson to New Jersey instead of growing north and south. This was not the only fault found

with the surface lines. Travel on them was slow, because the cars made frequent stops at crossings. Such conditions could not remain in a city like New York.

The Elevated

In 1878 the opening of the first elevated railroad in New York City was enthusiastically welcomed. It marked a new epoch in the history of transit problems. It relieved the overtaxed street-cars of a great burden and lessened street traffic. It was now possible to travel more comfortably and more rapidly. However, the elevated was also found lacking in some respects. Many people disliked the noise and dust caused by this new structure. Complaints and criticisms came from all sides. Others, while admitting that it aided in serving the public, claimed, nevertheless, that its steel pillars were a dangerous impediment to street traffic.

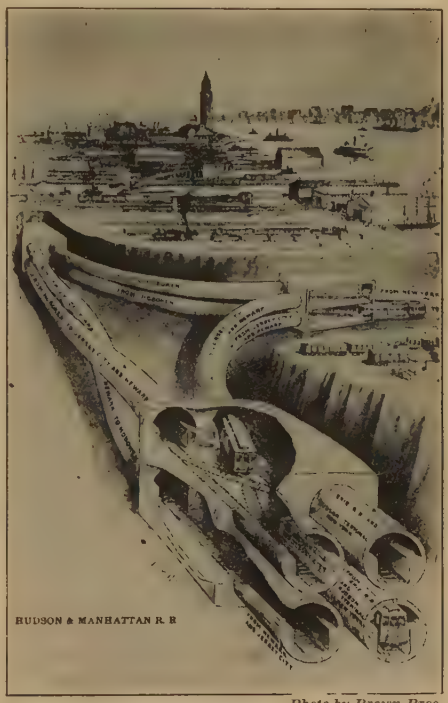

Photo by Brown Bros.

HUDSON TUBES.

The Subways

In 1904 there was inaugurated a new era in the realm of rapid transit, — the subway, the modern business men's connection between home and office. However, congestion continued, transit facilities still being inadequate for the constantly growing population of the city. Finally a Public Service Commis-

sion was appointed to investigate the problems of transit. Out of the chaos the "Dual System" developed in 1913. This was formed by two large companies, the Interborough and the New York Municipal Railway Corporation, entering into an agreement with the city to construct and operate new lines and extensions within the city limits.

The Busses and the Taxies

One might think that these numerous developments of transit would suffice to solve the transit problem, but we still have

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A Typical Scene on Fifth Avenue, Manhattan.
Notice the crowds patronizing the busses.

the indispensable "bus" service. The busses are used regularly not only by many business people, but they afford a great portion of the populace an opportunity of enjoying the sights of the city and obtaining the fresh air they are deprived of in the subways.

Again, what should we do without the taxi that so conveniently comes to our aid on a stormy night, when we are a few blocks distant from any line connecting us with home? Taxicabs of any one of many corporations may be had at any

time. They are more expensive, to be sure, than other modes of travel, but have a distinct advantage in that they need not follow a specified route.

Routes of the Interborough

Since most of the transit facilities do have each a definite course, these courses must be considered. The subway system seems to be one endless path of intricate tracks, all starting at the heart of the city at Forty-second Street and branching off into different directions. This is true to a certain extent, but the outstanding feature of the Interborough is the accommodating "H" system. This is formed by two parallel routes, the west side Broadway system and the east side Lexington Avenue system, connected in the middle by the Forty-second Street system known as the "shuttle." The advantage of such a plan is that one may go from any part of the west side of the city to any part of the east side, or vice versa, without coming to the surface for connections, and make the trip on one five-cent fare. As a matter of fact, it is possible to ride on one fare from the western part of Brooklyn or Queens to the northern parts of Manhattan or Bronx. Cross connections of the B-M. R. T. are so numerous and the paths so irregular that it would be a most difficult task to attempt to explain these in words. The map with subway routes, however (after page 234), clearly shows how this road connects the heart of New York, Manhattan, with Brooklyn, Queens, and the Coney Island District.

Routes of the Elevated

The predecessor of the subway, as we have said, was the elevated road. An examination of the map will show the main courses of elevated roads in Manhattan and the Bronx. The Third Avenue "L" starts as far down as Park Row, Manhattan, and extends as far north into The Bronx as White Plains Road, where it connects with the elevated Interborough Subway extensions to Mt. Vernon. The Ninth Avenue "L" starts at South Ferry and runs north to Fifty-third Street, where it merges with the Sixth Avenue "L" line, and the two roads jointly continue on Ninth Avenue to One Hundred Tenth Street; to Eighth Avenue, where it continues to Jerome Avenue, whence

it uses the Jerome Avenue elevated extension of the Interborough Subway, which goes north as far as Woodlawn Cemetery. The Sixth Avenue "L" also starts at South Ferry and continues north to West Fifty-third Street (where a "shuttle" runs between Fiftieth Street and Fifty-ninth Street on Sixth Avenue) to Ninth Avenue, there joining the Ninth Avenue "L."

Does it not seem that all these numerous and varied facilities for travel should suffice for the inhabitants of any city, even for one as large as New York? Almost daily, however, new plans of the Transit Commission are announced, to relieve congested conditions in our city. One of the best methods of alleviating these conditions, is to develop suburbs, thus enticing the people away from the crowded sections of the city and so equalizing the distribution of population. It may some day come to pass that even the extremes of the city limits will be perfected. Subway construction, however, must keep pace with suburban growth.

Control and Management

Control and ownership of our means of transit prove to be never-ending cause for dispute. At present, the subway and elevated lines are in part publicly and in part privately owned; that is, they were built with funds supplied both by the city and by private companies. They are operated, however, entirely by private companies. The street-car lines are owned and operated entirely by private funds and by private organizations. The larger number of busses in Manhattan are owned and run by private corporations, but The Bronx lines and the crosstown lines in Manhattan are owned by the city and operated by the Department of Plant and Structures. Because of recent disputes regarding fares and the quality of the service, plans for municipal control of the now privately operated transit lines

Municipal Control

are being discussed. One of the proposed plans provided that the city should buy all privately owned lines and also the privately owned stock of the subway system. The argument for this plan lies in the fact that the private companies are running these lines for their own financial gain and therefore wish to raise fares and cut down service to increase their dividends.

The city, acting as the people's agent, would strive to operate these systems for the comfort and convenience of those using them. It is pointed out, however, that public ownership of such large utilities very often leads to inefficiency and graft.

As new exigencies arise, man's ingenuity is taxed to cope with them. How we shall solve the intricate engineering problem of transit, which will come to the fore with the inevitable increase of the Empire City's population, is left to conjecture.

Today's pride of achievement will be viewed as tomorrow's relic of the past. Already the lofty structures of the elevated road, belonging, though they do, to the present generation, are regarded as unnecessary impediment to street traffic. Airplanes next? It has been predicted that the roofs of our tall buildings will eventually be used as alighting stations for flying machines. Though the advance may not be realized within the space of our lives, its accomplishment lies, nevertheless, within the realm of possibility.

The Port of New York

Blue water and green shores, water that sparkles and flashes in the sunshine, with stately white ships and gigantic ocean liners sailing majestically over its cool surface; shores covered with tall white buildings that tower into the blue sky above; and, surrounded by all, lifting high her torch-holding hand to shed her radiance on all, — Liberty; — that is your picture of the harbor of New York.

The Problem of the Port of New York

But the Port of New York is no picture. It is a hard and knotty problem. The majestic steamers are jammed into a hopeless, inextricable tangle of ferries and tugs, and endless chains of ever-arriving foodstuffs and raw materials, needed to feed the gnawing hunger of New York's millions of tired men and tireless machines. This lovely expanse of sparkling blue multiplies the cost of a ton of freight fourteen times.

Yet if New York did not have its natural advantages, these freaks of commerce would never be. New York's wonders have

made New York's greatness. It is the gift of Nature that has made this buzzing, humming colony of commercial Man.

Natural Advantages of the Harbor

The natural advantages of the harbor are many. It is a thing of giant size. The rather newly-created Port District, in which eight millions of people live, covers almost fifteen hundred square miles, including all the boroughs of New York, part of Long Island, northern New Jersey near the Hudson River,

THE "LEVIATHAN." *Photo by Brown Bros.*

The great vessel is here seen in the upper New York Bay. Just beyond is Bedloe's Island with Bartholdi's famous Statue of Liberty.

and as far south as Sandy Hook, and a large portion of Westchester County.

This area is a network of waterways. The shore line is nine hundred and ninety-one miles in length, more than the distance from here to Chicago. From the Atlantic, the entrance to the harbor is first through the Lower Bay. Then the ship sails on into the Upper Bay, through the Narrows. Here it is safe from the

storms and dangers of the open sea. It is in a perfect, land-locked harbor. Far beyond this a very large steamer cannot pass. But for ships of moderate size there are the Hudson and East rivers, flowing beside the shores of the Island of Manhattan. There are, in addition, countless inlets and coves. From the East River the stretch of water is continuous to Long Island Sound. On the north extends the Harlem River. Following

PART OF NEW YORK'S WATER-FRONT. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

the course westward from the Lower Bay, we find Raritan Bay, with a river of the same name extending into New Jersey; Arthur Kill, west of Staten Island; Newark Bay, joined to the Upper Bay by another arm of water; and the Hackensack and Passaic rivers extending far into New Jersey. These are the waterways of the Port District.

If this were all, New York Harbor would be the picture and not the problem. But it is not all. The broad expanse of water is neither so broad nor so deep as it might be. The East

River at Hell Gate is a conspicuous example of this. The channels are narrow, and skilled pilotage is necessary.

Congestion of Port

That is not all. Hundreds of thousands of passengers arrive on incoming steamers. Large numbers sail. The piers are crowded with travelers. Here again the Port of New York is fortunate. The ships need not anchor far from shore and send their passengers with their trunks in small boats, as is done in some other harbors. The ships may dock at the piers.

This confronts us with another problem. These huge steamers with their thousands of passengers need all the water-front available. The space must not be taken up needlessly by freight and railroads. If it is made increasingly difficult for foreign commerce to center at New York, it will be increasingly easy for ambitious and wide-awake men of commerce to divert the growth of European traffic to other less renowned, and consequently less congested shores. Other ports will become serious rivals of New York. If such a thing occurs, poor management of New York's port will be responsible.

It is at this very point that the Port faces its gravest difficulties. What is to be done with the trainloads of freight, the mountains of foodstuffs, the tons of raw materials that enter our Port? There are eight million people to feed and clothe, in this Port District. These people manufacture goods for all the world. The products are sent all over the world. The Port is choked with their ceaseless flow. Is our highly complicated case hopeless? The New York, New Jersey Port and Harbor Development Commission finds that it is not so. It is merely very costly. Two hundred million dollars will cure this rich-man's disease.

As a result of the freight situation, there is endless waste in time and labor, with far-reaching results. Every unloading and reloading adds to the price paid by the ultimate consumer. It is a curious fact that it costs more to deliver a barrel of potatoes from the unloading yards in Jersey City to a retail dealer in The Bronx, than it costs to send that same barrel of potatoes

from Michigan to Jersey City. One half of the foreign commerce of all the United States passes through our Port. A rise in prices due to poor disconnected handling of freight at the piers may cause a similar rise in prices all over the country. Thus the harbor, though in itself it supplies much of New York's strength, heavily taxes the very power that it gives.

Federal Control

But New York does not alone bear the burdens and reap the gain from its Port. The burdens are national liabilities, since

Photo by Brown Bros.

BUSH TERMINAL DOCKS, BROOKLYN.

Raw materials are brought here from all parts of the world and are converted into finished products in the large and well-lighted factories shown in the picture. The steamships and railroads stand ready to carry the completed commodities to every corner of the globe. A fine example of what can be done to reduce the cost of manufacture.

New York is the financial center and so controls the commerce, to a large extent, of all the United States. The gains are a national asset, as is the Port itself. So it is finally the federal government of the United States which controls the Port. The federal government formulates all port regulations, including lighting, anchorage, quarantine, and traffic rules. No improvements can be made without its consent. New York cannot erect a pier, cannot deepen or widen a channel, without its approval.

The treaty between New York and New Jersey creating the Port Authority had to be ratified by Congress and signed by the President. So the Port of New York is not a thing of local interest. It is a great national possession, directly under the supervision of the national government.

The Remedy Suggested by the Port Authority

The mention of Port Authority leads to a question of great importance and significance. After having battled over the question of the Port for one hundred and fifty years or more, New York and New Jersey came to the conclusion that it was more than time to bury the hatchet. So, in a treaty ratified by the legislatures of both states, the Port District described above was created and a Port Authority established. This Port Authority controls the District. It consists of six Commissioners, three from each of the two states. Its purpose is to carry out the comprehensive plan submitted by the New York, New Jersey Port and Harbor Development Commission.

The port problem cannot be allowed to continue. It has been definitely decided that "this will never do." The comprehensive plan of the Commission is to be adopted. This will insure the coöperation that is now so sadly lacking. Here are some of the salient features of the plan.

Channel Improvement

The Commission has urged the two states and the federal government to give closer attention to channel improvements. Dredging the Hudson from pierhead line to pierhead line has been recommended, so that even the "deepest cargo carrier" may have the use of the entire water-front. Thirty-foot entrance channels for the Jamaica and Newark bays and deeper channels within them are urged. It is also highly desirable to remove bridges and other impediments to commerce along the various rivers forming part of the Port.

Then there is the plan of having constructed in the Hackensack Meadows a terminal for railroads from the West and the South. Here goods are to be classified and shifted to the city by an underground belt line employing automatic electric cars, which will move in one continuous line under the Hudson.

Marginal Railroads

They will side-track to special terminals in Manhattan. There will be classified warehouses for foodstuffs along the line. A somewhat similar railroad is suggested for The Bronx, to receive goods from the East. Thus New York will have its food brought to its very doors by silent, tireless, faithful servants who take no interest in strikes. Marginal railroads will be built in Brooklyn, Queens, and The Bronx.

Belt Lines

There are to be also a series of railroads called the inner, middle, and outer belt lines. The inner belt line will communicate directly with steamship termini, and do away with the break-up yards. The cargo will be loaded from the ships directly upon the railroad. There are large numbers of piers that unnecessarily take up valuable space along the Manhattan water-front. They will probably be abolished and other piers established that will better coöperate with steamship termini. One middle belt line will be required on each side of the Hudson. These are for the "direct interchange of cars between railroads," and are to provide a thoroughfare for all Port railroads "to and from the joint car-float and joint-lighterage stations." The outer belt line is to be in New Jersey alone at first, and will follow the whole western part of the Port. It will relieve congestion near the water-front by going around these places with goods that need not go through the break-up yards. Besides, it will be a means of lightening traffic on the middle belt line. There will be a steamship terminus at each of its southern extremities, and a classification yard near Newark Bay. These lines form an important part of the whole plan.

There is yet another question. Shall part of the Port be fenced off into what is known as a "free port" where customs regulations do not operate, and where foreign goods may be brought, manufactured, and re-exported exempt from duty? This system has been found highly profitable in foreign ports. A commission has been formed to investigate and report to the committee of Congress that has this question under its jurisdiction. Shall we delay a possible improvement in so widespread a plan of

betterment? Betterment it is, and when it is accomplished the Port of New York will be as perfect as work of man can make it.

Then let the waters ripple gayly and the ships sail calmly. They will do so with a clear conscience. They will not be members of non-workable machinery that snarls and growls and will not run efficiently. They will play their part in a perfect whole, a unit that purrs and vibrates with power instead of swaying in conflict; a machine in which every bolt and screw and wheel knows its part and plays it well.

The Giant, Communication and Transportation

Man, by dint of hard and ceaseless toil has reared a great slave to work for him. Vast in size, greater than that monstrous creature of old whose body stretched over many acres, the body of this one extends over all the earth. But man has had to subject himself in some measure to the artificial servant that he has created. This thing of iron and steel, of steam and electricity — if one may so represent our system of communication and transportation — exacts in return for the constant service he renders a constant due. Man needs him now and to him must submit. Man labors for him day and night with hands and mind. Not only those directly engaged in the great work of commerce and transportation but every citizen has a duty toward this giant who serves him. All mankind must obey the rules of the game that the creature plays. We curb the speed of our automobiles, lest they cripple and kill; we send them to the east when the policeman bids, though it is to the west we really wish to turn. We keep the streets of the city clear so that traffic may proceed. In every form of communication and transportation certain requirements must be complied with if we are to be served as efficiently as possible. Only one thing we must all, as enlightened citizens, bear in mind. It is not enough that we should merely obey our created master; he remains our creature as well, and we have the additional duty of directing and controlling him in all his activities.

CHAPTER XII

LIGHTING AND HEATING

BY

Bushwick High School

Ever since the days of Robin Hood, night watchmen have been necessary, where streets have been poorly lighted. At one time, it was worth a person's life to travel through them without an armed guard. Finally, in 1415, the City of London was the first to erect oil lamps in the streets. Two hundred and seventy-four years later, in 1689, a law was passed in New York, the chief provision of which was that the occupants of every seventh house should hang out a light on the end of a pole. As a warning to negligent folk, the watchman's cry was:

> "Light here, maids, hang out your light,
> And see your horns be clear and bright,
> So that your candle clear may shine
> Continually from six to nine,
> That honest men may walk along,
> May see and pass safe without wrong!"

Importance of Lighting in Our Cities

The lanterns placed in the streets by householders shed a weird and faint light, and illuminated only a very small area of the street, leaving the corners and turns in dense shadows. Gradually, the lighting of city streets improved, until now, one is likely to forget the fundamental purpose of street lighting.

In late days it has been shown that the prevention of crime is not the only function of street lighting. The protection of life and property also requires a better and higher standard of illumination. The universal use of automobiles in our present day high speed traffic makes a better system of street lighting

indispensable. Statistics have proved that poor street lighting has caused countless accidents; therefore, for this reason alone, it should be thoroughly perfected.

How Our Cities Are Lighted

The principal sources of artificial light for our city streets are gas and electricity. In some rural sections we still find oil lamps; in others, acetylene is used. Many hundreds of acres

CLUSTER ARRANGEMENT OF LIGHTS.
Lamp post of thirty years ago.

of parks are still lighted by gas lamps, but they are gradually being replaced with electric lamps. Any up-to-date community demands well lighted streets with an absence of glare. Lamps must be placed closely enough so that there are no dark recesses and no shadows. The kinds of lamps used in our city streets are the inclosed carbon-arc, the magnetite-arc, the long burning flame-arc, and the quartz tube mercury-vapor varieties.

If beauty is to be especially taken into account, some form of cluster arrangement of the lamps is likely to serve best. A good example of street illumination, which combines both serviceability and beauty, is the cluster arrangement of lamps along Fifth Avenue. Whatever plan is to be followed, the lights must not be placed too high above the walk or street to be illuminated.

Lighting of Residential Streets

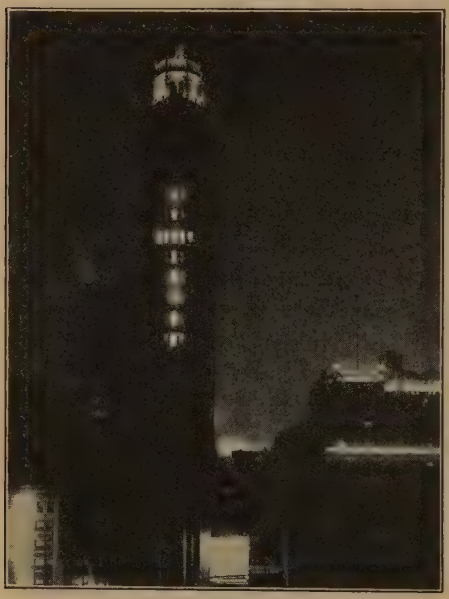
The requirements of residential street lighting vary considerably. The main considerations in this are to provide illumination of sufficient strength to aid passers-by to recognize one another easily, and to discourage criminal activities. To obtain these results, the light must be uniformly distributed and free from dense shadows. Care must be used in erecting lighting units, so that objectionable light will not be thrown into the houses. However, little annoyance will be caused, if the light is so distributed as to allow no illumination to strike higher than the first story of a residence.

Underground Conduits

Because of the rapid growth of cities, it has become necessary to rid all streets of poles and other obstructions, especially overhead wires. Wherever possible, for both the good appearance of our city streets and the necessity of making

STREET LIGHTS THAT ARE BEAUTIFUL AND SERVICEABLE.

fire-fighting easier, wires are removed and placed in conduits below the surface of the street. In the installation of underground house and station wires, two factors are kept in mind, namely: (1) the insulation of the wires, (2) the protection of the wires from mechanical injury. It is very important to use an absolutely waterproof insulation, such as rubber or lead-encased fiber. The most satisfactory mechanical protection is that which is afforded by an iron pipe or by a clay conduit laid in concrete in the floor and walls of a building.



THE BUSH BUILDING, CHRISTMAS NIGHT.

The Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity

The Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity has charge of all property involved in contracts concerning gas and electricity, and the transmission in conduits of gas, steam, pneumatic power, and electricity under streets and other public places.

The Bureau of Gas and Electricity

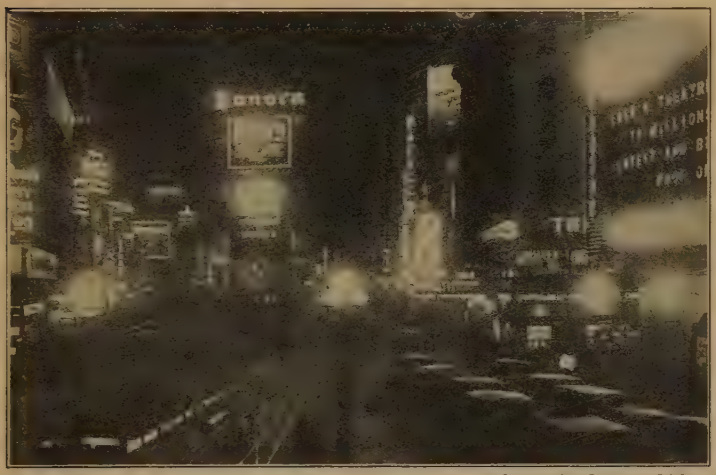
One of the subdivisions of the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity is the Bureau of Gas and Electricity. The work of this bureau is performed by five divisions:

1. Division of Electrical Inspection.
2. Division of Street Lighting.
3. Division of Light and Power for Public Buildings.
4. Division of Gas Examination.
5. Division of Accounts.

Since 1914, great progress has been made in improving the method of conducting the work of these several divisions, and in reducing the cost to the city of light, power, and heat purchased for its streets, buildings, and public places, from the various public service lighting corporations.

The Division of Electrical Inspection consists of an electrical engineer in charge, five chief inspectors, sixty inspectors, eight

The Division of Electrical Inspection



International Newsreel Photo.

THE THEATRICAL DISTRICT AT NIGHT.

Looking up Broadway from 43rd Street, the "Heart of New York."

stenographers, and twenty-two clerks. Under the law, inspections are required to be made of all electrical constructions and appliances in every building not controlled by the city. At present, the Division of Electrical Inspection relies upon the inspections made by the Board of Fire Underwriters, a private organization consisting of one hundred and fifty-eight members, and having offices at No. 123 William Street, New York City. The Division of Electrical Inspection checks only about ten per cent of this work, and as a result, certificates of compliance

with the electrical code are issued in most cases with the Underwriters' approval of installations.

Some of the other important duties of the Division of Electrical Inspection[1] are:

1. Inspection of all theaters, schools, churches, and motion-picture houses, and other places where the public gather in large numbers.

Courtesy of The Edison Co.

THE WAY SUBURBS SHOULD BE LIGHTED.

2. Determining the safety of all overhead and underground distribution lines. Whenever possible, overhead wires are limited, and underground conduits are required.

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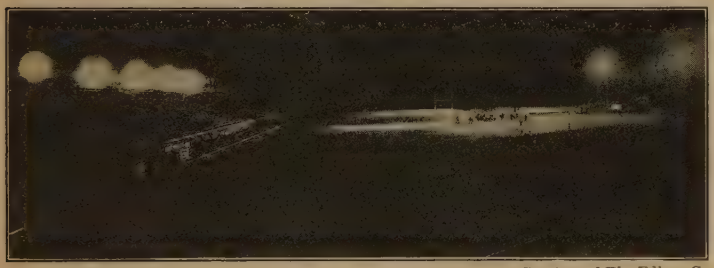
[1] Its powers have been broadened by adding to the electric code the provision that "no person shall install, alter, or repair electric wiring or appliances for heat, light, or steam in any building, except a person holding a permit or a license."

3. Examining all motion-picture operators, and issuing permits to those who pass the required tests.
4. Inspecting all electrical materials and appliances to be used in buildings.

Gas Examinations

Among the other duties of the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity, is that of "inspecting and testing the gas and electricity used for light, heating, and power purposes, electric meters, electric wires, of all lights furnished the city, and of the use and transmission of gas." Section 522 of the Charter provides that "the gas manufactured, furnished, or sold as aforesaid, shall be tested with reference to illuminating power,



Courtesy of The Edison Co.

A Football Game at Night.

pressure, and purity in a suitable manner, and by proper apparatus once a day, at special testing stations."

British Thermal Units

At these stations, the gas is tested to determine whether or not it measures up to the standard of 537 British Thermal Units. By a British Thermal Unit is meant the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of a pound of water from 32 degrees to 33 degrees, Fahrenheit. We, therefore, see that the standard of gas is reckoned according to its heat-giving value, rather than its light-giving value.

The Public and Public Service Commission

As a matter of fact, the public look to the Public Service Commission, which is a state body appointed by the Governor, to protect their interests. The Public Service Commission Law gives the commission very broad powers with respect to the supervision of gas and electric companies.

Among the most important powers of the Public Service Commission are:

1. Fixing the standard of the illuminating power and the purity of gas.
2. Investigating the methods employed in the manufacture and distribution of gas, and inspecting the plants and the books of the manufacturing corporations.

Illumination for Dock Construction Work.

3. Fixing the rates to be charged for the use of gas. The rates at present are:

First	100,000 cu. ft. gas per meter, per mo.	$1.15 per M cu. ft.	
Second	200,000 " " " " " " "	1.10 " " " "	
Third	300,000 " " " " " " "	1.05 " " " "	
Fourth	400,000 " " " " " " "	1.00 " " " "	
All over	1,000,000 " " " " " "	.95 " " " "	

The Board of Estimate and the Issuance of Franchises

In 1914 the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity inaugurated a policy of active participation in franchise and public utilities matters wherein taxpayers, householders, and the general public have a special interest. The Board of Estimate issues all franchises, but a franchise division investigates the complaints of excessive charges by the electric light

UNLOADING FREIGHT AT NIGHT.

and gas companies. This newly organized body appears before the Public Service Commission to safeguard the interests of city dwellers.

The Removal of Pavements

An interesting situation arises when an electrical company wishes to install electric lights in a building. As the removal of the street pavement is necessary, a permit must be obtained from the president of the borough in which the work is to be done. When a pavement so removed is not relaid to the entire satisfaction of the borough authorities, proper repairs must be made by the city, and the cost assessed upon the responsible parties by the collector of assessments and arrears.

Individual Coöperation and Responsibility

No matter how many boards or commissions are appointed to safeguard the interests of the public, none of these would be of much use, if the consumer did not coöperate with them. There are dozens of ways in which the public can aid in conserving gas and electricity. The General Electric Company has emphasized this in some excellent advice concerning electric bulbs.

Photo by Brown Bros.

A Home Equipped with an Electrical Range.

Care of Electric Bulbs and Gas Globes

"It is much better, and far cheaper to destroy a dimmed bulb, than to continue using it. No matter how well constructed or operated an electric lighting plant may be, the circuit must be kept clean of all dimmed bulbs, or it cannot furnish good light."

As a rule, the general use of clear globes or unshaded bulbs is both objectionable and wasteful. It is better and cheaper to employ frosted bulbs or globes, or to surround the globe with a suitable porcelain shade, especially where the light is intended for reading purposes.

Electric and Gas Irons, Toasters, and Percolators

If an electric or gas iron is used, it is much cheaper to turn the current off when the iron is hot enough to iron clothes satisfactorily, as you then may iron for fifteen minutes at a time without further consumption of electricity or gas. The same thing can be done with a toaster or percolator.

Gas Ranges

Many people who use gas ranges do not see their opportunities for making gas bills lower. After using a range, it is a common sight to see the housewife turning off all the subsidiary gas cocks or keys, and forgetting to turn off the main burner at the back or side of the stove. The main burner should always be turned off after use, because if this is not done so much more will be added to the monthly bill.

Simmering Cocks

On many gas ranges, there is a small cock or key, which the housewife never uses. To use this would be an aid to her. If she wished to keep any food warm, but not boiling hot, the simmering cock would supply enough gas. This habit would obviate wasteful consumption of gas.

There is a much more important phase of conserving gas in the home — the great advantage obtained by the consumer in learning to read his gas meter. He is then able to check up on his gas bills and see for himself the exact amount of gas he consumes.

How to Read the Gas Meter

Read to the right or left as the arrow indicates, and take the figures last passed by the hands on the dial. In the diagram below it would show that the dials registered as follows:

1st dial	60,000 cu. ft.
2d dial	7,000 cu. ft.
3d dial	400 cu. ft.

You, therefore, began the month with:

At the end of the month or term, using the same method, it would read:

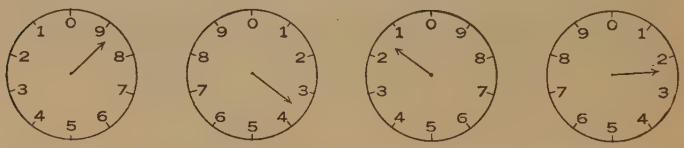
The difference between the two totals equals the amount (3,800 cu. ft.) of gas used.

71,200 cu. ft. − 67,400 cu. ft. = 3,800 cu. ft.

3,800 cu. ft. × $1.15 a thousand cu. ft. = $4.37 — amount of bill.

How to Read the Electric Meter

As the electric current passes through the meter it turns a tiny motor inside, and operates a set of little hands that indicate on dials the amount of electricity consumed. To read the indicated total, look at the right hand pointer first, then the next left, and then the next, reading always to the left. Read the number on each dial that the hand is pointing to or has just passed, and write them down in the same order to the left.



For example, by the figure above, the right hand dial registers 2, the second 1, the third 3, and the last 8. The total reading is 8,312. When your bill arrives, you will see that the reading of last month has been subtracted from this month's bill, to give the amount of electric energy you have consumed in the meantime. The total, which represents kilowatt-hours, will be multiplied by the rate for electricity in your city or town, to give in dollars and cents the amount you owe.

It will be seen by the reader that the subject of heating has not been discussed because most of the heat used in our city is obtained by the private burning of coal. Nevertheless, when gas and electricity are used for heating purposes, the same considerations apply as when they are used for lighting purposes. Gas and electricity are furnished by the public utility corporations to be used by the consumer so long as he pays for them. For this reason gas is measured according to the cubic feet consumed, and electricity by the kilowatt hour.

Perhaps some day our people will be able to use steam supplied by public service companies, and pay for it according to the number of heat units consumed. An example of this method of public heating is found in the building of the Board of Education, on Fifty-ninth Street and Park Avenue where the heat is furnished by the New York Steam Company.

CHAPTER XIII

MAKING THE LAWS

BY

Morris High School

Need for Government

We are living in a wonderful city. Almost every race known to man is represented in our cosmopolitan population. If each of our six million residents were to go his own way regardless of the rights of others, we could not be comfortable and happy. A club or baseball team cannot succeed without rules. How much more does a great city need rules or laws to guide its people in their everyday relations? To maintain peace and order we must have laws. Individuals must be controlled for the good of the community.

Meaning of Government

The power that maintains peace and order and that lays down the rules by which a community shall be guided is called the government. The word "government" once had an odious meaning. It meant in days gone by the rule of kings and emperors who imposed their will on their subjects. "Government" to us no longer means unwilling obedience on the part of the people to tyrant kings. Today government is the servant of the people. They create it, own it, and change it at will. Government is an instrument in the hands of the people, which they may use in any way they see fit to promote their own welfare. According to our Declaration of Independence governments are instituted among men to protect the rights of men and they derive their just powers from the consent of the governed.

In many small towns in New England, even to this day, all the voters meet every year to select officers and make their

laws or ordinances. At these meetings the people act directly in making their laws. This is an ideal plan of government, called a pure democracy. Of course such a method would be impossible for a city of six million people. Even the Yankee Stadium could hold but one per cent of all the people of our city were they to gather to make their own laws.

Need of Representation

Photo by Brown Bros.

THE NEW YORK STATE CAPITOL AT ALBANY.

That the public may be able to transact business it becomes necessary for them to choose from among their number individuals to act for them. These representatives make up the legislative department of the government — the United States Congress, the State Legislature, and the City Board of Aldermen. Thus we have three sets of representatives, national, state, and city, who make laws for us. Nearly every activity of our everyday life is controlled by the laws of our state. Where federal laws touch the citizens once, state laws affect him many times.

Importance of the State Laws

The law of the state provides for the registration of births, maintains a good system of free schools, establishes standards and regulations for the professions or trades one may enter, safeguards the family, protects life and property, enables one to vote and hold office, and to carry on business.

The State Constitution

The original Constitution of the State of New York, the fundamental law of the state, was framed in 1777 by a legislative body that acted under authority granted to it by the people. Since then, many amendments have been made to the original Constitution. The Constitution itself provides for a process of revision and amendment. Every twentieth year the people are asked to decide whether or not there shall be held a convention to revise and amend it. If a majority of the voters of the State want a convention, it will be held. Thomas Jefferson was of the opinion that the people of each generation should decide for themselves the form of government they desire to live under, and it has become a common practice in most states to submit the question of the form of government to the voters.

Our State Constitution contains carefully worked out plans for the calling of Constitutional Conventions. Three delegates are elected by the voters of each Senate district, and fifteen delegates are elected by a state-wide vote. With clerks, stenographers, and members of the Constitutional Convention all counted, we have a body of two hundred engaged at the State Capitol in the task of revising and amending the fundamental law of the state. The result of the labors of this body is submitted to popular vote, and, if approved, the proposed Constitution goes into effect on the first of January following.

Amendments

An amendment to the State Constitution may be proposed at any time in the State Legislature. If it receives a majority vote of each house it has to be passed upon a second time by a legislature which is to be elected at the next general election of Senators. The people are asked to vote on it at the next general election. The approval of a majority of the voters makes

the amendment a part of the Constitution the first of January following. Five such amendments were voted on in November, 1923. The Home Rule Amendment was approved and the amendment providing for private development of part of the Forest Preserve lands of the state was rejected.

In 1915 the people of the state rejected entirely the work of the Constitutional Convention. In these cases we have a striking illustration of the truth that the people can have what they

Senate Chamber, Capitol, Albany.

want. They alone can change the fundamental law of the state.

The State Legislature

The Legislature of our state is made up of two chambers having practically equal law-making powers — the Senate and the Assembly. In the upper house, the Senate, there are at the present time fifty-one Senators, one from each of the Senatorial districts into which the state is divided. At the same election at which a Governor is chosen the voters of each Senatorial District elect a State Senator for a term of two years. The

lower house, the Assembly, is composed of 150 members chosen at each general election for a term of one year by the voters, one from each of the 150 Assembly districts in our state.

The Lieutenant-Governor acts as President of the Senate, and in the Assembly the members choose a Speaker to preside. Senators and Assemblymen receive a salary of $1,500 annually.

Assembly Chamber, Capitol, Albany.

The bicameral system (consisting of two houses) was devised so that one house would be a check on the other to prevent hasty, unwise, or partisan action. But under modern parliamentary rules involving the printing of all measures, open public hearings before committees, three readings of bills, and the Governor's veto power, the danger of such ill-considered action is slight.

Moreover, when as usually happens, the same political party controls both houses, the check of one house on the other is slight. If the respective houses are dominated by different parties, a deadlock may result. The two-house system, more-

over, increases the cost and complexity of the legislative machinery and encourages compromises and political bargainings.

Sessions

The Legislature holds an annual session, which begins on the first Wednesday in January, and which usually lasts, with brief adjournments, for three or four months. The Governor has the power to convene the Legislature in special session. Governor Nathan L. Miller called a special session in the summer of 1922 because of the emergency of a coal shortage.

The Committee System

The procedure of the State Legislature follows, in a general way, that of Congress. Much of the preliminary work of the Legislature is done by committees. There are usually thirty or more important committees in each house. A Senator or Assemblyman may be a member of several different committees. Some of them have important work to do and meet very often. Among the important committees in the Senate are those on finance, judiciary, cities, public education, labor and industry, and taxation and retrenchment. The Assembly has similar important committees.

As soon as a measure is introduced in either house it is referred by the presiding officer to the appropriate committee, which carefully studies the proposed measures. Serious consideration of these measures would be impossible on the floor of either the Senate or the House for hundreds of bills are proposed. Time will not permit their proper consideration and hence the committee system is necessary. As various measures come before the respective committees, they are given careful study. After due deliberation the committee reports the measure with its recommendation to the Senate or the Assembly, as the case may be. Most measures are never reported out of committee and, therefore, are said to be "killed in committee." The Senate or the House votes on the measure after it has been sent out of the Committee room.

The procedure by which a bill becomes a law is a very complicated one. Briefly, the first step necessary is to draw the bill properly. A misplaced comma may change the entire

meaning and effect of a law. Hence New York maintains a legislative Bill Drafting Commission with a corps of experts to assist legislators in drafting bills. The drafted bill is then presented, is read by title only, and is referred to the proper committee by the presiding officer.

If it is an important measure, the committee gives it a place on the calendar and perhaps assigns a date for a public hearing. Any one interested may appear for or against the bill at this hearing and submit arguments. Some time later the committee in private or executive session decides whether to report favorably or unfavorably on the measure, or to kill it by not reporting it. If a majority of either house desire to vote on a bill that the committee will not report, they vote to relieve the committee from consideration of the bill. This brings it before the house for action.

State of New York.

No. 1878. Int. 1635.

IN SENATE,

April 2, 1923.

Introduced by Mr. FARRELL — read twice and ordered printed, and when printed to be committed to the Committee on Internal Affairs of Towns, Counties and Public Highways.

AN ACT

To amend the highway law, in relation to equipment of motor vehicles with mirrors or reflecting devices.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Subdivision ten of section two hundred eighty-six of chapter thirty of the laws of nineteen hundred and nine, entitled "An act in relation to highways, constituting chapter twenty-five of the consolidated laws," as such section was added

A SENATE BILL.

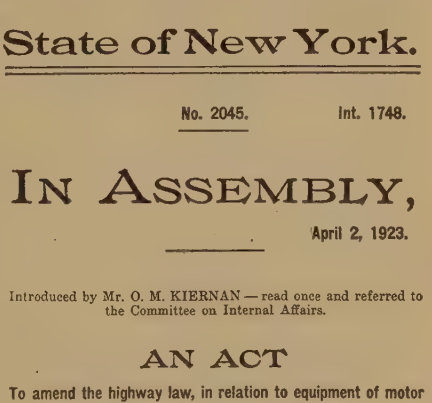
When the report is sent back the bill is listed on the calendar and in turn comes up before the whole chamber, which may accept or reject the report of the committee. If the report is accepted, the bill reaches the next stage, the second reading. If the bill causes discussion, the most important debate occurs at this time. Unless the bill is defeated, it is placed on the calendar for a third reading. If it is passed at this reading, it

is ordered engrossed and is forwarded to the other chamber, where it goes through a similar course of three readings.

If no amendments are offered in the other house, the bill is sent to the Governor for his signature. Should amendments be offered, the bill is sent to the chamber where it originated so that the amendments may be voted on.

The Governor has the power to veto this bill or any other enactment of the Legislature except an amendment to the State Constitution. He must return the bill within ten days to the house where it originated with his reasons for the veto. This veto defeats a bill unless both houses pass it again by a two-thirds vote, in which case it becomes a law without the Governor's signature. If the bill is not returned within ten days, Sundays excepted, it becomes a part of the Statute law without his signature. If the Legislature adjourns after sending a bill to the Governor, he has thirty days in which to consider it. In the case of an appropriation bill he may veto any item without vetoing the entire bill.

The Veto



State of New York.

No. 2045. Int. 1748.

IN ASSEMBLY,

April 2, 1923.

Introduced by Mr. O. M. KIERNAN — read once and referred to the Committee on Internal Affairs.

AN ACT

To amend the highway law, in relation to equipment of motor vehicles with mirrors or reflecting devices.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Subdivision ten of section two hundred and eighty-six of chapter thirty of the laws of nineteen hundred and nine, entitled "An act relating to highways, constituting chapter twenty-five of the consolidated laws," as such section was added

AN ASSEMBLY BILL.

In the Legislature of 1922, the bills introduced in the Senate numbered 1424 and those introduced in the Assembly 1672. Of these bills 672 became laws.

Local Legislation

The Legislature grants charters to villages and cities, and gives some law-making power to local bodies. These local legislative bodies are more familiar with local needs and better fitted to make laws of a local nature than the State Legislature would be. The Legislature has power to create and alter these municipal corporations as it thinks best.

The New York City Charter

The basis of self-government in New York City is found in the grant of power from the State Legislature known as the Charter of the City of New York. The first Greater New York Charter of 1897 was amended by the Legislature in 1901, and has been frequently amended since. It has been severely criticized as being complex and involved, and several commissions have been appointed to revise it, but they have had little success.

The earliest extant charter of London, granted by William the Conqueror in 1066, contains about sixty words. Our charter is a volume of about one thousand closely printed pages. Many of the details therein should have been regulated by ordinances of the Board of Aldermen. The charter, however, contains but a small part of the statute law dealing with Greater New York. The Code of Criminal Procedure, the Code of Civil Procedure, the Municipal Court Act, the Tenement House Law, and other laws contain many provisions affecting New York City.

Home Rule

The Municipal Assembly is a new law-making body for New York City, established under the Home Rule Amendment to the State Constitution (1923), which provided for the creation of a local legislative body in each city of the State. It consists of the Board of Aldermen or lower house and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment or the upper house. Legislation may originate in either branch; when passed by both bodies, it goes to the Mayor. If he does not sign or veto it, it becomes a law.

The Municipal Assembly has the right to amend the City Charter or pass any local law affecting the City, if not in conflict with the Constitution or the State laws.

The provision of 1894 states that any laws passed by the Legislature regarding New York City alone are to be immediately

STAIRWAY IN THE STATE CAPITOL, ALBANY.

sent to the Mayor for action within fifteen days. If he approves of the measure, he signs it and it is sent to the Governor. Otherwise the measure must be passed by a majority of both branches of the Legislature before being sent to the Governor.

This measure has had a beneficial effect, especially in the case of a "pocket veto," for if the legislative session ends be-

fore the fifteen days allowed for the Mayor's action, the veto for the city is absolute. A few states give their cities full power to amend their own charters.

State Functions Performed by the City

Many state functions are performed by the city as the agent of the state. Among these may be mentioned the administration of justice, the prevention and punishment of crime, the suppression of vice, the protection of public health, the care of dependents and defectives. Education is distinctively a state function, but the city has developed this service far beyond the minimum set by the state.

The Board of Aldermen

The city legislature consists of seventy-one members—sixty-five aldermen elected from aldermanic districts for two years, the President of the Board of Aldermen elected at large for four years, and the five borough presidents. The head of each city department is entitled to a seat but not to a vote in the Board, and he must attend its meetings when required. The Board must meet at least once a month except during August and September. Its stated meetings are held in the Aldermanic Chamber at the City Hall on Tuesdays at 1:30 P.M. On the following Thursday the minutes of the meeting are printed in the "City Record," the official journal of the City of New York. Any one may attend these meetings.

The Board may make, amend, and repeal ordinances for the government of the city. These are to be found in the Code of Ordinances. Although considerable power is given to the Board by the charter, its power is really rather limited. Pressed by the superior powers of the State Legislature on the one hand and by those of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on the other, the Board of Aldermen is a body exercising few important functions. However, it is expected that this Board will have greatly increased powers when the Home Rule Amendment to the State Constitution goes into effect.

The license-granting power has been transferred from the Board of Aldermen in part to the Department of Licenses and in part to the borough presidents. Because of the grave abuses

in the granting of franchises, all power over franchises was taken from the Board in 1905 and vested in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The Sanitary Code is established by the Board of Health, and is declared by the Charter to be an ordinance without the intervention of the aldermen. The most important legislative function now exercised by the Board of Aldermen is the establishment of the Building Code. The Charter requires the Board of Aldermen to publish all the ordinances once a year.

The Board of Estimate and Apportionment

The charter gives large power to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. This board is to a large extent unique in municipal government. The estimating of the needs of the various branches of city government and the apportioning of funds accordingly make up but a small part of its many functions. It is really the board of directors of the municipal corporation of the city. As such it determines and controls the policies of improvements, franchises, privileges, and permits. It is generally regarded as the most successful city agency. Year by year its powers are gradually increased. Today the Board has almost exclusive authority to grant franchises of every character, involving millions of dollars. The Public Service Commission, with the approval of the Board, grants a few rapid transit railway franchises.

The Board now consists of eight members, all elected for four-year terms. The Mayor, who is chairman, the Comptroller, and the President of the Board of Aldermen have three votes each. The Presidents of the Boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn have two votes each, while the Borough Presidents of the Bronx, Queens, and Richmond have one each. Of the total of sixteen votes, a controlling number, nine, are cast by the Mayor, the Comptroller, and the President of the Board of Aldermen. The Board meetings are held at the City Hall on Fridays at 10:30 A.M. and the minutes of the meetings are printed in the "City Record."

Like the Board of Aldermen and other legislative bodies, the

ABOVE: LOWER NEW YORK CITY ABOUT FIFTY YEARS AGO, AT THE
BELOW: LOWER NEW

The marvelous growth of New York City in size, wealth, business, such stupendous problems of finance as are com-

Board of Estimate and Apportionment is also subdivided into standing committees to facilitate its work. Among the committees are those on franchise, city-plan, tax budget, education, port and terminal facilities, social welfare, markets, and transit. From the mere naming of these committees one can see what a range of matters come under the jurisdiction of the Board.

TIME WHEN THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE WAS UNDER CONSTRUCTION.
YORK CITY TODAY.

population, and all the requirements that go with them, has occasioned
parable with those of many a state or nation.

The Budget

Perhaps the most important duty of the Board is the preparation of the annual tax budget. This budget fixes the amount of money to be raised by taxation for the support of the various departments of the city government for the ensuing year. The budget-making period extends from June to December. During the first few months the heads of the various city

departments are required to submit estimates of the amount of money they will need to run their departments for the coming year. The latter part of the budget-making period is spent by the Board of Estimate, the Board of Aldermen, and the Mayor in considering these estimates.

After the departmental estimates are submitted to the Board of Estimate they are investigated by the various bureaus.

Photo by Brown Bros.

ANOTHER VIEW OF LOWER NEW YORK.
The Financial District.

The sub-committee of the Committee on Tax Budget holds public hearings at which each item is taken up separately. The sub-committee makes its recommendations to the main committee, which determines the appropriations to be recommended to the Board of Estimate in the form of a tentative budget. This tentative budget is printed and distributed to citizens upon application, and is made the subject of public hearings before the full Board held during the last week in October.

Before November 1, a final budget must be adopted, and within five days thereafter it must be sent to the Board of Aldermen. This Board is allowed twenty days by law to study the budget. The Aldermen have only a limited power of action. They can reduce or eliminate any appropriation except those fixed by law, those made for state taxes, and those dealing with the interest or principal of the city debt. Any reduction they make can be vetoed by the Mayor, although by a subsequent three-fourths vote the Board may override such veto. They cannot, however, increase any item, insert new items, or vary the terms and conditions adopted by the Board of Estimate.

The Mayor's Legislative Powers

The budget must finally be certified before December 25, and must be published in the "City Record" before December 31; it becomes operative on January 1. Matters relative to franchises must receive the approval of the Mayor in addition to the affirmative vote of the Board of Estimate. The Mayor, as we have seen, has also the veto power over all bills passed by the State Legislature affecting New York City, over ordinances and resolutions adopted by the Board of Aldermen, and over many of the resolutions of the Municipal Civil Service Commission.

The Congress

The laws New York State enjoys in common with the other states of the Union are made by Congress. A body of five hundred and thirty-one men chosen by the people comprise the Congress of the United States — ninety-six Senators, two from each state, elected by popular vote for a term of six years; and four hundred and thirty-five Representatives, elected by popular vote for a term of two years. Each state, irrespective of its size or population, sends two Senators to the United States Senate. A state's membership in the House of Representatives depends on its population, as determined every ten years by a federal census. New York State has forty-three Representatives, New Mexico has but one. The Nation apportions its representation according to population, but the State of New

York counts only its citizens in apportioning representatives in the State Legislature. This legislative body, called Congress, makes laws for us in New York City, as do the State Legislature and the city legislature described above. The Sixty-seventh Congress (1921–1923) passed 457 laws. 13,000 other bills were introduced but not passed.

Every two years a new Congress assembles at Washington. Bearing in mind the year 1789 as that of the first, a simple

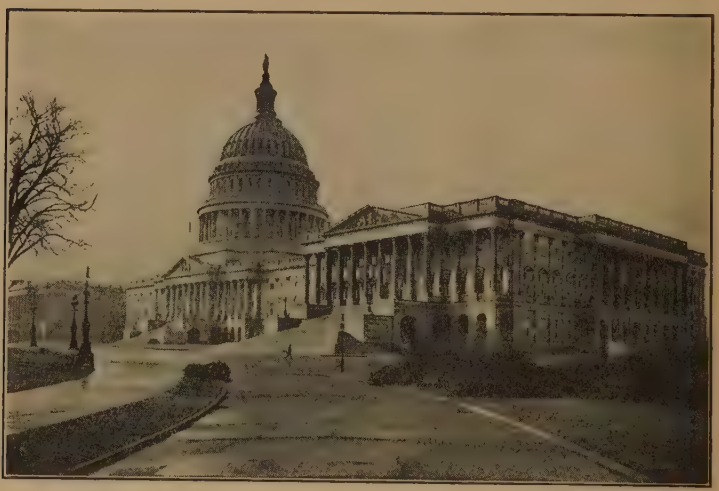


Photo by Brown Bros.

THE UNITED STATES CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

calculation shows why we refer to the present Congress (1923–1925) as the Sixty-eighth Congress.

All members of the House of Representatives are elected every two years on the even-numbered years — 1920, 1922, 1924, etc.

The six-year terms of United States Senators, however, do not all expire at once. Only one third of them reach the end of their terms at any one time. Thus the Senate is a continuing body. While new men come in, yet always two thirds

of its members have had at least two years' experience in law-making.

State Power and National Power

Congress legislates on many subjects. Matters relative to protection from foreign enemies, maintenance of international order, protection of life by health and food laws, interstate commerce and transportation, the mails, currency, patents,

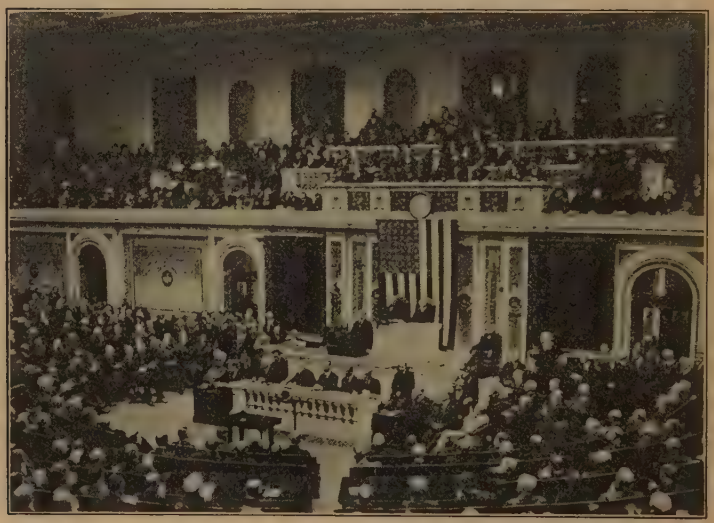
AIRPLANE VIEW OF U. S. CAPITOL AND OTHER GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

copyrights, standards of weights and measures, naturalization, taxation — all these are taken care of by Congress.

But we have already seen that many of our state laws and many of our city ordinances have to do with some of these same matters, such as taxation, health, and food laws, protection of life and property. The foreign student of our institutions might ask how we manage to avoid a conflict of authority between the states on the one hand and the federal government on the other. That is a most interesting question, the answer to

which would involve much of our national history. The question of "State's rights" has been a constantly recurring one. Even in our day the recently adopted Prohibition Amendment and the Woman Suffrage Amendment have again brought up the problem of States rights.

Originally the thirteen states, having declared themselves free, became so many separate and distinct nations. As such



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PRESIDENT COOLIDGE ADDRESSING THE SIXTY-EIGHTH CONGRESS.

they had sovereign power. However, they saw fit to unite for the common defense and general welfare, and established a Union. To the central government then formed the states gave up certain powers which the new Nation needed to make its work effective. At first the respective state governments were much stronger than the federal government. But gradually, as the Nation grew, the power of the central government increased.

The Civil War decided that no state or combination of states has a legal right to withdraw from the Union. Since that time the federal government has grown more and more powerful. According to the federal Constitution, that document and the federal laws and treaties are "the supreme law of the land." Where the federal and state authorities conflict, the states must give way to the higher authority of the Nation.

Photo by Brown Bros.

LEARNING HOW TO USE THE VOTING MACHINE.

Ordinarily, however, there is little danger of trouble from this source. The states and the central government have learned to coöperate for the welfare of all. Often the states and the federal government work together directly, as in fighting a contagious disease.

Your Part in Making the Laws

The citizen has an active part to play in legislative matters. By his vote he may accept or reject amendments and constitutions. By his vote he may put the proper type of citizen

into official position. To vote intelligently he must keep himself informed on all matters of civic interest. The Alderman, the Assemblyman, the State Senator, the Congressman, the United States Senator, are all his chosen agents. These men will serve him if they but know his desires and the desires of their constituents generally. They often go to great trouble to find out how "the folks back home" feel on important public questions, but invariably complain that these "folks" seem indifferent to their efforts.

The good citizen can do much by making direct suggestions to his representative in person, by letter, and by telegram. Public hearings held by the various legislative committees afford a good chance for interested citizens to bring their influence to bear on legislation. The great difficulty lies in the fact that there is very little general interest in these hearings. The great corporations take advantage of this fact and individuals who have special and selfish interests to serve often carry the day.

The pitiless "spotlight of publicity" should shine into all the dark corners. Through the press and civic organizations much can be done to influence governmental action. Nothing can long endure without the sanction of public opinion. Our government has been called a "Government by discussion," and the more discussion we have the better the government is likely to be — provided always the discussion is intelligent.

Your duty in brief is this: Educate yourself for intelligent participation in YOUR government. Don't leave it all to the other fellow.

CHAPTER XIV

CARRYING OUT OUR LAWS

BY

High School of Commerce

We all know that our lives, from the time we get up in the morning until we go to sleep at night, are regulated, directed, and protected by law. Very complex indeed are these laws that protect our lives and property. There are laws that make possible pure water and pure food; laws that prescribe the kind of house in which we may live; laws that declare the minimum number of years we must attend school; laws that protect the workers in factories, on the farms, in the store, and in the office; laws that protect the public from being unjustly dealt with by public service corporations such as gas companies, electric light companies, railroad and rapid transit companies; even laws that direct what must be done for us when we are born, when we go to school, and when we die.

Our Daily Lives Regulated by Law

You have already read what bodies make these laws, and here you will be told what groups of executives in the nation, state and city, carry out these laws. Each one of us lives under three sets of law; laws made by Congress for the nation as a whole; laws made by the State Legislature for the people of New York State, and laws made for the City of New York through various groups of law-makers.

Three Kinds of Laws

"We, the people of the State of New York, grateful to Almighty God for our Freedom, in order to secure its blessings, do establish this Constitution," is the preamble of our State Constitution. To secure the blessings of liberty is the great end of its

The State Constitution

existence. For this reason the bill of rights is made the first article in the Constitution. The actual machinery of government, with the details of organization is found in our State Constitution. The Constitution, which is the fundamental law, and the Statute laws, which are laws made by the legislature of the state, must be properly enforced. For this reason the

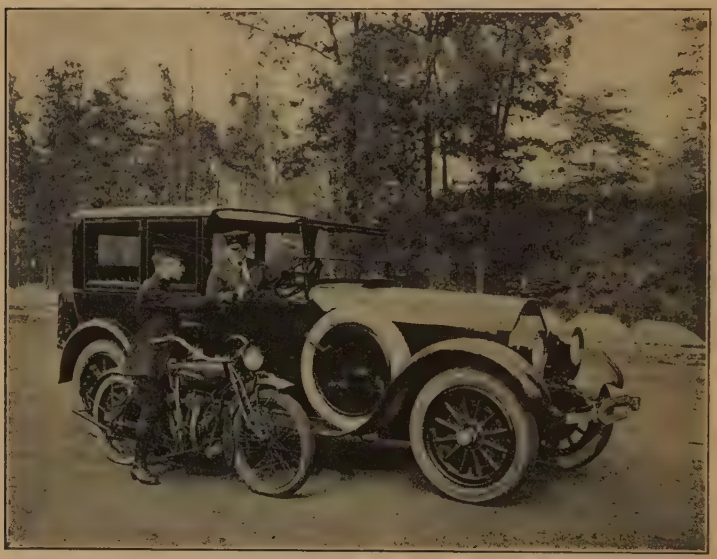


Photo by Brown Bros.

A Traffic Policeman Enforcing the Law.

people elect certain officers who constitute the executive department of the state.

The Governor: the Chief Executive

The chief of these executives is the Governor, and upon his shoulders falls most of the burden of carrying out the laws. People often think of laws as defining only crimes and misdemeanors; they seldom pause to consider that the smooth running of their daily lives has come about through law and is maintained only through law. Naturally, then, we may expect to find a great many laws relating to a great many different

conditions. It is easy to see that the Governor alone cannot enforce these mandates. Many of them demand the services of trained experts; such as engineers, doctors, educators, and bankers.

The Governor Must Delegate Some of His Powers

If the Governor is unable to do all this executive work himself, he must delegate some of it to others, and this is precisely what he does. He appoints one man or a group of men to help enforce the law. But the people, wisely, do not allow him to be the sole judge of his appointees. His appointments must be approved by the State Senate.

The Duties of the Governor

The message that the Governor sends to the Legislature is a statement of what he hopes to accomplish with its aid through better provision for carrying out old laws or by making new ones. This message from the Governor is presented the first week in January.

The Governor may call an extra or special session of the Legislature if he thinks the passage of a certain bill urgently important, or if an emergency suddenly confronts the people of the state.

The Governor Assists in Making the Laws

The law-making power of the Governor is seen in his signing or vetoing bills passed by the Legislature. No bill can become a law without going to the governor for rejection or acceptance. The Legislature may pass laws over the Governor's veto, but it is not an easy matter to obtain the required two-thirds vote of the Legislature, which vote is necessary to pass a bill over the Governor's veto.

The Governor Has Actual Force at His Command

The responsibility of enforcing laws without having some actual power at his command might make the Governor a sorry figure, so we find that the Constitution has made the chief executive commander-in-chief of the state militia. If the lives or property of people in any locality within the state are threatened, he may call out the militia. This has been done several times in the history of our state.

In another way the Governor is a power for right and righteousness, for to him from the Board of Pardons, come the pleas

for clemency for those who have broken the criminal laws of the state.

The Governor Must Be Wisely Chosen

In the Empire state the welfare of ten million people depends upon the Governor and his commissioners. Therefore, it is necessary for the citizen of the state so to inform himself of civic needs and activities, that he may be one of an *increasingly intelligent* electorate, who shall by their wise choice of public officials constantly promote the public good.

Why We Have Commissions

It will be interesting to note what some of these laws are that directly benefit the people, and which the Governor enforces through his deputies. One is the State Labor Law, enforced through the State Industrial Commission and passed for the benefit of the workers of the state. Some of its provisions define and regulate the sanitary conditions of factories; some limit the number of hours of labor for women and minors, and provide for the enforcement of the Workmen's Compensation Act.

That the people may get the best possible service from subway, elevated, and surface railways in our city, the Governor appoints a Transit Commission, which is empowered to enforce certain laws made especially to regulate rapid transit.

All the members of these commissions are appointed by the Governor with the consent of the Senate. Similarly, the chief executive appoints the members of the Civil Service Commission; the State Department of Health; the Department of Highways; the State Tax Commission; a Commission for the regulation of Motion Pictures; the Inter-State Park Commission. He also appoints a Superintendent of Public Works and several other superintendents and commissioners who in one way or another enforce laws that are made for the welfare of the people.

We must emphasize the fact that to carry out various matters like the foregoing necessitates the spending of money. There is a law which says that all work to be done and the estimated cost thereof must be stated clearly and definitely in writing.

The commissioners under the supervision of the Governor carry these improvements into effect.

Centralized and Decentralized Government

The Governor and his commissioners may be likened to the President and his cabinet, with this important exception: All members of the President's cabinet are selected by him with the consent of the Senate, while in our state several important executive officers are elected by direct vote of the people and are practically independent of the Governor.

This form of government is called decentralized because all the responsibility is not placed in one person — namely, the Governor. Considerable discussion centers around the question whether the centralized or the decentralized form of government is the better for the people.

Elected Executive Officers

Among the elected executives is the Lieutenant-Governor. He is elected at the same time as the Governor, but may be of a different political party. The Lieutenant-Governor acts for the Governor in case the latter is ill or out of the state. The Lieutenant-Governor is also President of the State Senate and has a place on several commissions.

The Secretary of State is also elected by the people. He must see that the laws are properly published; he sends out notices of election, issues certificates of incorporation to business corporations.

The Comptroller is another executive who is elected by the people. He is the business manager of the state. Through his department, money is collected, state bonds are sold, and the Comptroller is a member of the State Board of Estimate and Control.

The State Treasurer, who has actual charge of the money of the state, is also elected. The Attorney-General, the lawyer of the state, and the State Engineer and Surveyor complete the list of elected state officers. The Engineer and Surveyor's office is a continuation of the Surveyor-General's office that existed in Colonial times. The large number of engineering projects makes it necessary to have a state engineer to look after them.

State Supreme Over Municipality

In all matters pertaining to government within its boundaries the state is supreme. Through its Legislature and limited only by the provisions of its Constitution and the Constitution of the United States, the rights and the duties of its inhabitants are outlined and their welfare fostered. Cities, towns, and villages are created by this Legislature, and the form of their complete organization, including legislation, executive and judicial departments, is stated in the charter they receive.

Photo by Underwood and Underwood.

NATIONAL CITY BANK, 55 WALL STREET, MANHATTAN.

The Mayor as Executive

The charter or set of laws that created the present City of New York, makes provision for our executive officer called the Mayor and defines his duties and powers. Did you ever stop to think how much the proper government of our city depends upon the honesty, the fairness, the good judgment, and the personality of our Mayor?

Appointing Power of the Mayor

To him belongs the difficult task of seeing that all the laws and ordinances are carried out. He is responsible for all the municipal administration except the Department of Finance

and the work of the borough presidents. Naturally the Mayor needs helpers, therefore, the city charter gives him the right to appoint and remove the heads of departments, such as Fire Commissioners, Commissioner of Public Markets, Health Commissioner, etc. These officers must see to the fair assessment and collection of taxes, to the health, comfort, and safety of our people, to the proper education of our children, and to taking care of the city's unfortunates.

The Mayor also appoints trustees of Bellevue Hospital, Hunter College, and City College, members of the Parole Commission, and members of the Board of Education all of whom are responsible to him. He likewise appoints but cannot remove members of the Board of City Magistrates and the justices of the Court of Special Sessions.

Veto Power of the Mayor

Another right of the Mayor is to approve or disapprove the ordinances passed by the Board of Aldermen and the laws passed by the State Legislature affecting New York City. However, the bills may be passed over his veto by a majority of votes in either body. During the legislative sessions of 1921 one hundred and thirty bills were passed affecting our city; to seventy-two the Mayor gave his approval; fifty-seven he vetoed.

Membership on the Board of Estimate and Apportionment

In addition to his executive power, the Mayor is a member of many boards, committees, and commissions. The most important of these is the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of which he is Chairman and in which he has three of the sixteen votes. This board resembles the Board of Directors in a bank and has control of all the city's money. It prepares and passes the annual budget, grants franchises (the right of a private company to use public property for the good of the people), and authorizes public improvements such as the extension of the subway lines and the development of the port.

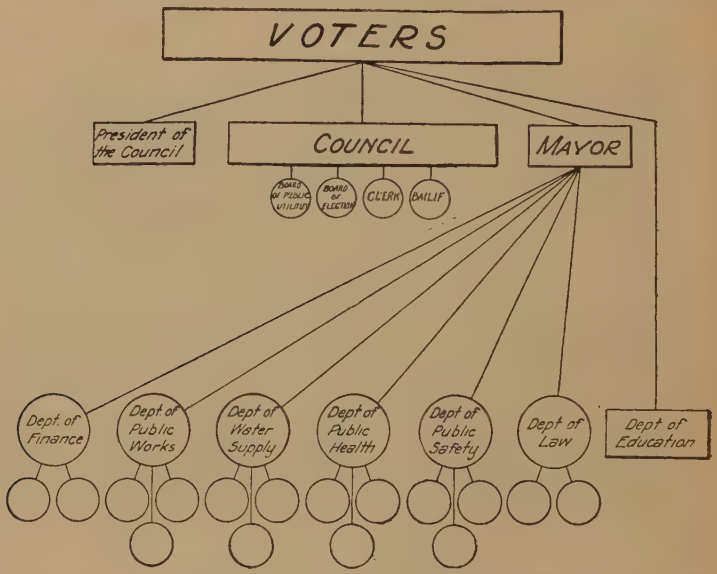
Additional Duties of the Mayor

A few other duties of the Mayor under the Charter are — the making of proclamations, the approving of documents relating to franchises and changes in the city's map, the designating of two daily newspapers for the printing of petitions for

franchises, the rendering of reports of the expenses of his office, the granting of various permits such as auction-sale permits, the handling of the great bulk of correspondence of the city, and last, but not least, the granting of interviews to private individuals.

Types of City Government

Our present Mayor was elected for the first time in 1917 and was reëlected in 1921 by direct popular vote. His term



Courtesy, National Municipal League.

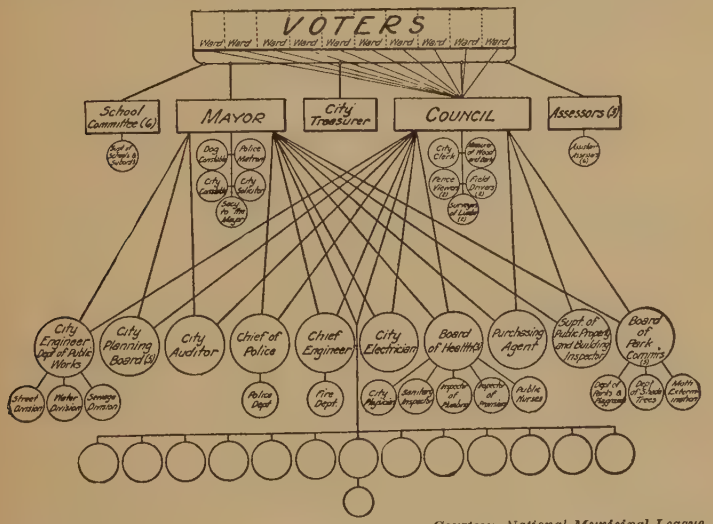
CENTRALIZED MAYOR-COUNCIL PLAN.

expires in 1925. Before the expiration of his term, he can be removed only by the Governor on direct charges. The government of New York City is called the Mayor-Council type and consists of a Mayor as executive assisted by the heads of departments and a legislature called the Board of Aldermen.

This type is highly centralized and fixes responsibility largely on the Mayor. His appointment of department heads, his membership on that great financial body, the Board of Estimate

and Apportionment, and his right of veto give him far more power than is exercised by the Governor of the state and perhaps even more than that of our President. The choice of a Mayor is thus very important, because on this choice depends the efficient running and welfare of our city.

The Commission type of government was adopted in 1906 after the great flood of Galveston. More than three hundred and fifty cities have adopted it. In its most common form it



Courtesy, National Municipal League.

DECENTRALIZED PLAN.

consists of a commission of five members elected from the city at large, which does the work of our Mayor and department heads, the Board of Aldermen, and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

Advantages Claimed for Commission Form

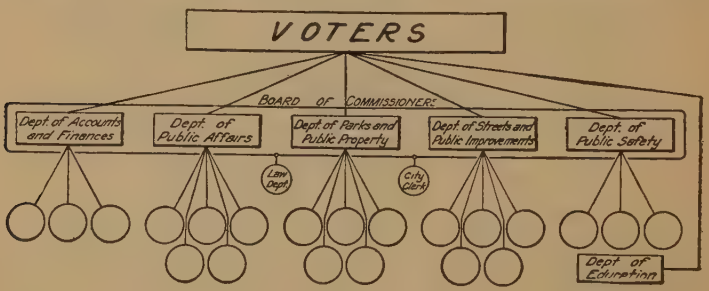
Its chief advantage is that it takes the government of the city out of the hands of the political parties and thus puts it on a business basis. Its supporters likewise maintain that it centralizes the responsibility (all placed in one body of men),

that business and public improvements are attended to promptly, and that decent salaries and increased responsibility encourages better types of men to take office.

Its chief faults are the danger of great power in the hands of a small group of men and divided executive responsibility.

The City Manager Plan

In 1912 Sumter, S. C., inaugurated a new type of government called the City Manager plan. The city manager must be a capable, trained executive who can manage the city as a business organization. He is appointed by the Council members to have jurisdiction over all the city departments, and can be removed at any time. He need not be a resident of the city.



Courtesy, National Municipal League.

COMMISSION PLAN.

Advantages Claimed for City Manager Plan

The chief advantages of this plan is that not only does it take the city out of the hands of the politicians but it centralizes responsibility in the hands of one man. This, say its supporters, means smooth working within the city departments and great efficiency in the management of the city.

Despite the fact that its enemies maintain that it puts too much power into the hands of one man, its popularity is shown by the fact that it has been adopted by more than one hundred and fifty cities.

It is hard to say which is the better plan, for each city government has to meet different problems, and its type of government must be fitted to its needs. Those who favor the plan in use in our city insist that it combines all the advantages of

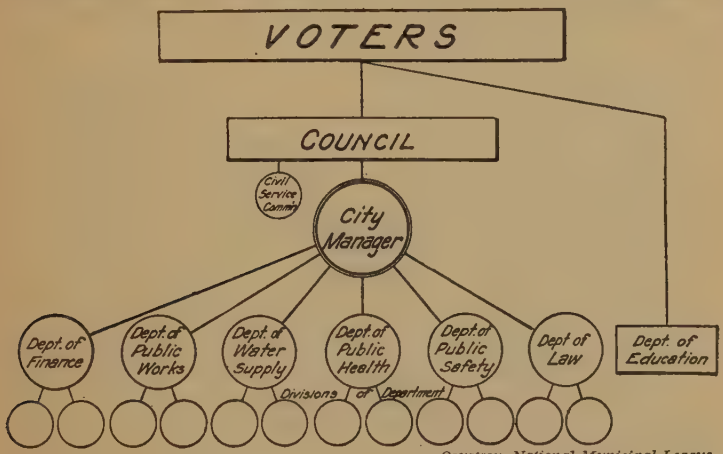
the Commission and City Manager types without any of their disadvantages.

Provision for Local Government with the Boroughs

All authority in regard to each of the five boroughs that comprise Greater New York is not vested in the Mayor. The Charter provides for local officers called Borough Presidents, who have definite duties pertaining to the welfare of their respective boroughs.

New York a Group of Communities

Some years ago New York City and Manhattan Island were one and the same. The places we now know as Brooklyn, Bronx,



Courtesy, National Municipal League.

CITY MANAGER PLAN.

Queens, and Richmond were not part of New York City, but separate cities and towns. Each city or town had its own Mayor and local government. When the Legislature of New York State formed greater New York with its five boroughs, these local Mayors went out of office and their power was centralized in one Mayor for the whole city.

The Borough Presidents

Nevertheless we have today in each borough an office resembling that of local mayor, and called the President of the Borough. Every four years, therefore, when the whole city is electing a Mayor, the people in each borough choose their own

Borough President to look after the needs of their own borough. To help carry on his work each Borough President appoints men to various offices. The chief ones are the Commissioner of Public Works, Secretary of the Borough, and a Superintendent of Buildings.

What the Borough President Does

A great deal of the work of the Borough Presidents is concerned with the care and improvement of the streets. No doubt each one of us, on numerous occasions, has consulted the street signs on the corners. With the double sign, now in use, showing both street and avenue on each side, it is possible to get the exact location without straining one's neck as was necessary with the old type of sign. The erection and care of these signs is just one of the small things the Borough President looks after.

If the roadway in front of your home is broken, the repair of it comes under the direction of the Borough President. The house you live in, you feel certain, is built correctly, of the proper materials and according to approved plans. The approval of these plans and the construction of buildings are under the supervision of the Borough President through the Bureau of Buildings.

Districts in Each Borough

The Borough Presidents also have charge of the building of sewers, roads, bridges, and tunnels within the boroughs. Each borough has been divided into a number of districts. Each district has formed a local improvement board, composed of the aldermen of the district. They meet the Borough President in the Borough Hall and take action on the needs and improvements necessary in each district. In this way the wants of each neighborhood are taken care of.

Since the Borough President is a member of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment each borough has representation in the affairs that concern the whole city. Here the Borough President votes on matters regarding the financial policy of the entire city.

As a member of the Board of Aldermen, the Borough President has a voice in law-making for the whole city.

City Hall Park.

Many City Employees Needed

The Mayor, through the Charter, is charged with the duty of protecting the lives and the property, caring for the health, and promoting general welfare of the people of Greater New York. As you have learned, various city departments are created to make this work possible. At the head of each department is a commissioner or a group of commissioners, but under him are that great army of trained workers who actually do the work of each of these departments. The city expects its workers to have training and ability; it also knows the value of keeping its trained employees in its service,

The Civil Service

consequently it appoints them by means of a civil service examination and protects them in service through civil service laws.

Suppose you stood on Fifth Avenue and watched a parade of all persons employed by the city. Whom would you see in line? The Mayor, as chief executive, would lead the procession, closely followed by the five Borough Presidents. Then would come more than fifty departments led by their respective heads.

Here come the teachers! More than twenty thousand. The Police Department follows, eleven thousand strong. The Fire Department swings by, seven thousand men, ready to risk their lives at a moment's notice. Here come six thousand hard workers of the Street Cleaning Department. Now more than four thousand employees of the Health Department march accompanied by large floats showing some of the things they do to keep New York healthy. And still they come. What a huge army!

We follow the parade to the Meadows in Central Park. A signal is given and the ranks break only to regroup themselves according to occupation. What a host of different employments the members of the city's service represent! Accountants, bus starters, cable testers, dentists, electricians, foremen of sewer repairs, gardeners, head cooks, interpreters, janitors, laboratory assistants, mechanical engineers, pharmacists, rod-

men, stenographers, telephone operators, and others too numerous to mention. In fact, it would be hard to name a profession or trade that is not represented there.

Getting a Position in the Civil Service

The civil service of the City of New York "includes all offices and positions of trust or employment in the service of the city, of whatever function, designation, or compensation."

The "Classified Service" includes all persons in the city's service, "except elective officers; the officers and employees of heads of any department of the city government; and persons employed as superintendents, principals, or teachers in the public schools."

The classified service is divided into four classes; the Exempt Class, the Competitive Class, the Non-Competitive Class, and the Labor Class. The Competitive Class is the largest. All persons in this group have proved their qualifications for the particular positions they hold by passing a rigid examination in competition with other candidates. Many of the positions in the other classes are being filled more and more on the basis of fitness and less as a result of party affiliation or influence. The Civil Service Commission is making merit the keynote of entrance and promotion in the civil service.

Work of the City's Employees

All the employees of the city are engaged in carrying out the laws, rules, and regulations of our government. To carry out these laws wisely, it is necessary, first, to investigate, secondly, to instruct, thirdly, to enforce. All persons on the city's payroll devote their time to one or more of these functions.

The efficient management of our city's affairs is known to all the world. Students and statesmen from other cities in our own country and from foreign lands are visiting us constantly to study our fine departments and learn about their able management. But how much would all this work avail, if the citizens did not help? Friendliness, patience, understanding, and willingness to coöperate on the part of the citizens, old and young, will make the hearts of city workers lighter in the face of great difficulties. Their tasks will become easier, and will

immeasurably improve their efforts to make New York the best managed city in the world.

The Nation's Executives

The Constitution of the state and the statutes of the state are carried into effect by the Governor and other executives with their subordinates. The Charter (laws creating the City of New York) and the ordinances of New York City are carried into effect through the Mayor, and various other executives and heads of departments, together with the aid of a host of civil service employees. So, national statutes made to provide for the welfare of the United States are put into operation through the President and his assistants, who are usually spoken of as the cabinet.

Carrying Out the Nation's Laws

Have you ever stopped to think that you personally have helped carry out our nation's laws? Every time you have placed postage stamps on the matter that you have posted, every time you have paid a war tax on your admission ticket to a baseball game or to a theater, you have been actively participating in law enforcement. In this way and in many other ways, you and other citizens have been aiding the federal government to carry out the laws enacted by Congress.

Important as it is for all citizens to be law-abiding, the business of the government cannot be wholly conducted by its citizens, either individually or collectively. Certain citizens specially selected and clothed with authority are needed to do this work. In the Executive Department of the national government, there are normally 500,000 persons engaged in the performance of hundreds of kinds of work. It would seem, when we consider the many kinds of work done by Uncle Sam, that every trade and occupation known to man is represented in this great army of workers.

The President and His Duties

The efforts of this vast multitude of officials and civil service employees are under the direction of the President. By what authority? By the authority of the Constitution of the United States of America these efforts are under the direction of the President. Article II, Section 1, of the Constitution says:

"The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States." In Section 2 of the same article we find these words: "The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective officers."

In peace and in war the President stands at the head of the nation as its chief executive.

The Cabinet

To aid the President carry out the acts of Congress and the treaties entered into by the nation, Congress has from time to time created the various departments of state to be administered by cabinet officers. There are ten such departments.

How the Cabinet Functions

The President's cabinet is usually thought of as a group of men meeting with the President to consult with him and with one another with reference to executive acts. That is true; but most of the time cabinet officers act independently, but always in conformity with the President's wishes. If there is a disagreement between a cabinet officer and the President in matters of policy, the cabinet officer voluntarily resigns or is asked to resign by the President. The resignation of Secretary Lansing is an illustration.

Space will not permit a detailed recital of the powers and duties of the cabinet officials. A statement of the powers and duties they enjoy in common must suffice.

Duties of Cabinet Officials

1. To perform such duties as are imposed by law or intrusted to them by the President in the administration of their respective offices.
2. To promulgate rules and regulations for the carrying out of the laws that relate to their departments.
3. To approve of leases, bonds, and other similar documents affecting their departments.
4. To pass upon all matters referred by their respective solicitors.

5. To appear before congressional committees as occasion may arise.
6. To recommend the appointment of presidential officers in their own departments and to approve of appointment under civil service rules and regulations.
7. To meet with various boards and commissions.
8. To issue orders affecting the policies and programs of the different offices, services, and bureaus and to effect inter-bureau coöperation.
9. To pass upon all work-programs prepared by the chiefs of the several bureaus, offices, and services under their jurisdiction.

How the executive department of the national government has been organized to carry out our federal laws will now be shown.

Government Employees

We have said that approximately 500,000 persons are engaged in the task of law enforcement. Only a few of these, relatively speaking, are government officials. They are nearly all civil service employees. It should be remembered in this connection that civil service employees are not an organic part of the government, any more than the employees of a firm are members thereof. Nevertheless employees of the government, whether engaged in clerical work or in manual labor, are as truly taking part in carrying out the federal laws, as are government officials, appointed by the President or his representatives.

How the Government Pays Its Way

Where does the money come from to support so many employees and officials, to provide them with offices and equipment? Largely from taxes, as will appear from the subjoined table which gives the figures for 1923.

Customs	$356,443,387.18
Income and profits tax	2,068,128,192.68
Miscellaneous internal revenue	945,865,332.61
Other miscellaneous revenue	820,733,853.07
Total ordinary receipts	$4,191,170,765.54

Each year an estimate is made by the budget commissioner, of the expenses that will be incurred by each department, and from time to time Congress makes the necessary appropriations.

How a Law Is Carried Out

The first step taken by the government in law enforcement is the printing of the law. Copies of the law are then dis-

Photo by Brown Bros.

CUSTOMS OFFICIALS APPRAISING GOODS THAT HAVE NOT BEEN DECLARED.

Customs duties on imported goods constitute one of the channels through which revenue accrues to the federal government.

tributed to government officials by the Superintendent of Documents. Executive orders for the information and guidance of officials are printed weekly by the Government Printing Office and likewise distributed by the Superintendent of Documents. For example, when the present tariff law, known as the Fordney-McCumber Law, went into effect on September 21, 1922, the following executive order was sent out immediately:

Treasury Department, September 21, 1922

To the Collectors and Other Officers of the Customs:

"All the provisions of the Customs Regulations of 1915 and all other regulations of the department now in force relative to the importation and entry of merchandise under the tariff act of Oct. 3, 1913, and other acts, are hereby extended to the importation and entry of merchandise under the act of September 21, 1922, so far as applicable, until such time as the same may be revoken, modified, or amended by the department.

"Edward Clifford,
"Assistant Secretary."

Sometimes the new law is of such character as to require the creation of a new bureau and the appointment of an executive to head the bureau. The Volstead Law was such a law. It was duly promulgated by the Secretary of the Treasury; and, to make it effective, an army of civil service employees was organized to carry it out. Besides this, an appropriation of $9,000,000 was made by Congress to pay the expenses of the bureau.

On page 82 of the Attorney General's Annual Report for the fiscal year 1922, we find this statement: "During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1922, there were 34,984 criminal and 2,157 civil prosecutions commenced under the national prohibition act in the various district courts. To prevent the smuggling of intoxicating liquors according to our New York newspapers, the Secretary of the Navy has placed at the disposal of the Prohibition Enforcement Officer of New York, a number of war vessels to keep bootleggers outside the three-mile limit.

From these illustrations we gather, that the carrying out of the laws calls for coöperative effort, not only of the members of the President's cabinet, but of the federal courts, bureaus, and other government instrumentalities.

Facing the Facts

The grave situation in which our country finds itself with reference to law enforcement has been set forth by the American

Bar Association in a recent annual report and by the late President Harding in a recent report and in a message to Congress.

The American Bar Association says, "The criminal situation in the United States, as far as crimes of violence are concerned, is worse than in any other civilized country."

POLICE HEADQUARTERS, 240 CENTER STREET, MANHATTAN.

In his message to Congress on December 8, 1922, President Harding said, "Let men who are rending the moral fiber of the Republic through easy contempt for the Prohibition Law, because they think it restricts their personal liberty, remember that they set the example and breed a contempt for law that will ultimately destroy the Republic."

CHAPTER XV

WORK OF THE COURTS

BY

De Witt Clinton High School

The Function of Courts

In days of old, when knights were bold, a knight always walked at a lady's right side so that he might easily draw his sword to protect her from bodily harm. Those were lawless days and a good right arm and a sword were needed.

Today the gentleman still keeps up the custom but he no longer needs to carry a sword. He knows that there are courts and judges and policemen who will see to it that the streets are safe, that people may go about their work or play. People do not take the law into their own hands. The courts act as umpires in disputes. Just as baseball teams obey the decision of the umpires, so all good citizens submit their disputes to the courts.

Criminal Law

Most of the cases that arise are either criminal or civil. If a man steals, he is tried in the name of the state, and the lawyer for the state, the district attorney, sees to it that the interests of society are protected. That is a criminal case.

Civil Law

If, through negligence of the owner, the steps leading into a house have not been kept in proper repair, and some one who has a right to use those steps, as for instance a tenant, should suffer an injury through the collapse of the stairs, the injured person, as plaintiff, could sue the owner, as defendant, for damages in a civil court. That is a civil case. The state is not the plaintiff. This is a dispute between two persons and involves a question of damages or property. Other civil cases concerning the ques-

tion of property belonging to the deceased are tried before a judge called a surrogate. The surrogate sees to it that the property of the deceased is divided according to the testator's wishes expressed in his will. If no will is left, the court appoints a person, called an administrator, to dispose of the

Photo by Brown Bros.

APPELLATE COURT BUILDING, MADISON AVENUE AND 25TH STREET, MANHATTAN.

property according to law. The will usually names a person called an executor, who carries out its terms under the order of the surrogate.

Procedure in a Civil Case

If John Smith builds a house for you and you refuse to pay him for his work, he tells his lawyer to sue you for his money. John Smith is the plaintiff and you are the defendant. His lawyer serves a paper called a summons on your attorney, and the case is begun. You must answer the summons and appear in court on the day named. Your lawyer sends a reply to the summons, to John Smith's lawyer.

On the day named all the parties appear in court and the judge is ready to proceed with the trial. Both lawyers select a jury. John Smith's lawyer begins by briefly stating the case to the jury. He then places on the witness stand his witnesses, who give their testimony. Your lawyer has a right to question Mr. Smith's witnesses and to produce witnesses for your side. When he has finished questioning those who testified in your behalf, Mr. Smith's lawyer may also interrogate them. After all questions have been asked, the two lawyers address the court, and jury. They sum up all the facts.

The judge then turns to the jury and says, "Gentlemen of the jury! You have heard both sides of this dispute. You alone must decide the facts. I will tell you what the law is before you go to the jury room so that you may be able to decide the case." The jury goes into a room to arrive at a verdict. When all twelve have agreed, they return to the court and the foreman of the jury tells the judge what the verdict is. The judge thanks them and they are discharged.

Procedure in a Criminal Case

If John Jones enters your house at night and steals a large sum of money, a policeman takes him to the nearest station house and the lieutenant at the desk writes the charge in a book called the "blotter." As soon as possible Jones is taken before Magistrate Brown who hears the complaint. Judge Brown says, "You are charged with stealing. Call up your lawyer and friends and find out whether you can get bail."

The lawyer and friends of John Jones hurry over to the court. His friends leave a certain sum of money with the court, called bail, to assure the judge that Mr. Jones will come to court some time later when his case is tried by a jury. The magistrate has no power to try the case. He says to Mr. Jones, "I hold you for the Grand Jury." The judge orders a court officer to take Mr. Jones downtown to the city prison, the Tombs, if he cannot give bail, and there he must stay until the day of the trial.

About ten days after Mr. Jones's arrest, the Grand Jury

hears all the facts and, if it appears that there is enough evidence to hold Mr. Jones for trial, a paper called an indictment is drawn up, and Mr. Jones must be tried by another jury of twelve men, called a petit jury. The Grand Jury does not try Mr. Jones; it merely decides whether or not Mr. Jones shall be set free or be tried. The trial is left to the petit jury.

What the Grand Jury Does

Photo by Brown Bros.

A Trial by Jury.

This is a criminal case and is tried in the court of General Sessions on Centre Street. The lawyers for Mr. Jones and the state select the jury and the same method is followed as was briefly outlined in the case of Mr. Smith. If Mr. Jones is found "guilty" he must go to prison. If the jury finds him "innocent" he is acquitted and set free. The district attorney may not try him again on the same charge.

The Trial

Let us assume that Mr. Jones is found guilty. His lawyer has a right to ask for another trial in a court called the Appellate

Division of the Supreme Court and if refused a new trial by this court, he may appeal to the Court of Appeals in Albany and in some cases even to the United States Supreme Court at Washington. We want to make sure that Mr. Jones is rightly convicted. We believe with the Romans, that it is better to let a thousand guilty men escape than to punish one innocent man. Any one who knows anything about the case may testify. All citizens may attend during the trial. There is no secrecy.

How the Orders of the Court Are Carried Out

We must have men to carry out the orders of the courts. They are called sheriffs and marshals. These men may seize the property of the man who loses a case and sell it, to pay the money to the man to whom the jury gave the verdict in the civil case we discussed above. These officials are attached to local courts, to state courts, and to national courts. Their duty is to see that the court orders are carried out. The sheriff is a county officer elected by the voters of the county. His duty is to maintain the peace of the community. In order to do so, he may at any time call to his aid any number of able-bodied citizens. A group thus collected is called a posse.

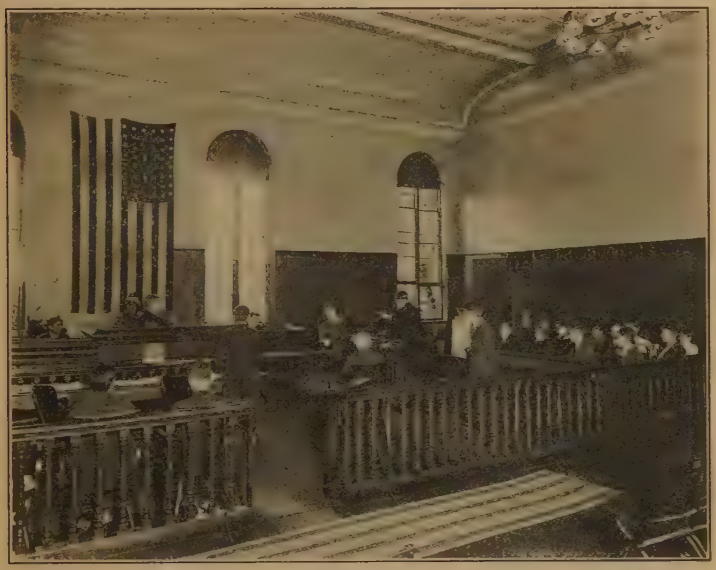
Here in New York the sheriff does not usually need the help of the citizens, but in some places he calls for citizens when he is hunting for an escaped criminal. The sheriff has charge of the county prison. A city marshal carries out the orders of the municipal court and takes care of dispossess cases. The United States marshal enforces the orders of United States Courts. There is such a court located in the old Post Office building on Park Place and in that building there is a United States marshal. He has power to arrest those who refuse to obey the orders of his court.

The Court of General Sessions

Downtown, in Centre Street, in the Criminal Court Building is located the Court of General Sessions. Here there are nine judges elected by the people, who take turns in trying serious cases such as murder, arson, and burglary. In this court a man, after receiving a jury trial and being found guilty, may be ordered electrocuted.

Less serious criminal cases are tried in Special Sessions. If two men were brought before a magistrate charged with fighting with knives he would say, "I hold you for Special Sessions." If one of the men died as a result of the fight, the magistrate would say, "I hold you for the Grand Jury," and the case would be tried in General Sessions. There are twelve judges in this

The Court of Special Sessions



A Mock Trial.

These high school students are participating in a mock trial or "moot court" for practice.

court, including a Chief Justice, who are appointed by the Mayor for a term of ten years. There are five parts to this court, one in each borough. By a new law passed in 1922, all appeals from convictions in Magistrates Courts, go to this court.

The lowest of our courts that have power to try cases of a criminal character are the Magistrates Courts. These courts are scattered throughout the city, and there are many city magis-

The Magistrates Court

trates appointed by the Mayor, who try all sorts of minor cases. These courts try a very large per cent of all the cases involving violations of the law and in most cases the decisions of these courts are final.

Types of Cases in Magistrates Courts

If a man peddles without a license he is brought before a magistrate who may fine him a few dollars. An orator who insists on speaking without a permit in a crowded street is taken by an officer to a magistrate. Boys who fall into bad company and shoot "craps" go before this court. A father who violates the school attendance law by keeping his son out of school may be fined or sent to jail by a magistrate. All day long a procession of such people files before these magistrates. These are exceedingly busy courts and for most people they are the only courts with which they ever come into contact. It is very important that the judges in these courts should be particularly well fitted for their work.

Courts Which Try Civil Cases

We have just discussed the courts that try criminal cases, the Court of General Sessions, the Court of Special Sessions, and the Magistrates Courts. Let us consider briefly the courts that try civil cases. The Supreme Court of the state tries civil cases involving very large sums of money. There is such a court in each county of New York State.

If an opera singer makes a contract to sing for twenty weeks at five thousand dollars per week and does not receive his pay, his lawyer goes to the State Supreme Court in City Hall Park. If the amount involved in the opera singer's case is not more than two thousand dollars, the case is tried in the City Court which is located in City Hall Park. If the singer is suing for less than one thousand the Municipal Court hears the case. All three of these courts, Supreme, City, and Municipal, are civil courts, trying cases involving property or money. The judges of these courts are all elected by the voters.

Domestic Relations Court

The mayor has appointed certain magistrates to take care of cases dealing with family matters in a court called the Domestic Relations Court, a branch of the Magistrates Court. Hus-

band and wife who cannot agree may, after a talk with the judge, become reconciled and try to get along together for the sake of the children. Husbands may be ordered to give a certain sum of money for the support of the family. An ungrateful son may be made to support his old mother who sacrificed so much for him. Many are made happier after the magistrate gives a friendly talk to all involved.

GIRLS TAKING PART IN A MOCK TRIAL.

New Ideas in the Treatment of Young Offenders. The Children's Court

We have made much progress in the treatment of young offenders. We no longer send them to jails and prisons unless it is necessary, for contact with older hardened criminals is not the best thing for a young lad who has committed an offense against society. When a child is arrested, his parents are notified and the boy is usually placed in the custody of the parents who promise that they will appear in court with him when wanted. No lawyers are necessary. The court is not inter-

ested in technical, legal questions. The judge is anxious to correct, not to punish. The judge orders a probation officer to look up the past record of the boy at home and in school. If there is any doubt as to his mental ability or if he is diseased, the child is examined in a medical clinic attached to the court, in charge of the children's society.

The boy or girl is always placed on probation whether guilty or not, except in the case of murder. This period of probation may last until the boy is eighteen years of age. If he is a bad boy and misbehaves often during this period, he is again arrested and sent to an institution for boys who will not listen to the good advice given to them by the judges in the Children's Court. If the probation officer finds that the home is not what it should be, the parents are brought to court and charged with being improper guardians of the child. The boy would be sent to some institution where he would be taken care of. The Children's Court is a branch of the Court of Special Sessions. There is one of these courts in every borough.

The Traffic Court

In the Traffic Court, which is a branch of the Magistrates Court, the judges listen daily to many cases that involve the breaking of laws, passed to make the streets safe for boys and girls and all other citizens. The judges have power to fine those who appear for the first time, and may send to jail those who continually violate the city laws regarding speeding. These judges are helping us. We, too, must obey the traffic rules and do our share.

Original and Appellate Jurisdiction

Some courts, such as the Court of General Sessions, are called courts of original jurisdiction because they are the first to try men for serious cases such as murder or burglary. Other courts have the power to listen to the condemned man's plea for a new trial. To these courts the man appeals and we call them courts of appellate jurisdiction. The highest court of appellate jurisdiction in our state is the Court of Appeals at Albany. The highest court of this kind in the United States is the Supreme Court at Washington. If a man is convicted of murder

in General Sessions, the court of original jurisdiction, he may appeal at once to the Court of Appeals at Albany. Usually this is the last court for him to appeal to, and if this court refuses to grant him a new trial, nothing can save him except the act of the Governor of our state, who may change his sentence from that of the death penalty to life imprisonment.

Photo by Brown Bros.

NEW YORK STATE COURT OF APPEALS AT ALBANY.

United States Courts in New York City

In those cases where the lawyer for the condemned man can prove that his client did not receive those rights that are guaranteed to every man who lives in our country, he may appeal to the highest court in the land, the United States Supreme Court. This court may order that he be given a new trial. If this court decides that the man has received a fair trial, it refuses to interfere and the state law takes its course. The United States has its own courts scattered throughout our country. In our city, as was said before, there is such a court in the old Post Office building on Park Place. If a man in New

York steals from the Post Office or counterfeits money, he is tried in this court because he is committing an offense against the United States.

Types of Cases in United States Courts

Some time ago, a sea captain and his son were tried in this building on a charge of killing a member of their crew. Recently a big phonograph company complained that a rival company was using some of its patents and this court decided the case, because cases involving patents and copyrights come under the United States law. Most of the cases tried in this court, the United States District Court, involve men who cannot pay their debts and are in bankruptcy. Formerly each state had its own bankruptcy laws. When the Constitution was adopted Congress was given charge of such cases. Congress passed a law called the National Bankruptcy Law and as soon as that law was passed all the state laws were no longer in force.

What Is the Supreme Law of the Land?

The Constitution of the United States says that the supreme law of our land is the Constitution of the United States, and all judges from the justice of the peace in a little town court up to the judges in the Supreme Court at Washington must see to it that this supreme law is carried out. If a state law is in conflict with this supreme law the state law must give way. The judges of the Supreme Court have the task of interpreting the laws. If we had no such final judge, each state would have its own ideas on the subject and there would be many different opinions and much confusion. The judges of our highest court may say "This law of Congress in our opinion, is a violation of the Constitution. Congress has no right to pass such a law. It is therefore of no effect." They may say the same concerning a state law.

Appointment and Impeachment of United States Judges

Judges in United States courts are appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate. If a United States judge should die or be removed from office for misconduct, the President would send to the Senate the name of a man who in his opinion would be a worthy successor. If the Senate approves the new man, he is sworn in as a judge.

A judge who does not live up to his oath to be a fair and impartial judge may be impeached by the House of Representatives and removed from office by the Senate of the United States, which acts as a jury. If the President is put on trial in impeachment proceedings, by the House, the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court becomes the presiding officer of the Senate instead of the Vice President. Any civil officers, including

THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT CHAMBER, WASHINGTON, D. C.

the judges, may be impeached and removed from office by a vote of two thirds of the senators.

New Ideas in Treatment of Adult Offenders

Reference has been made to the new ideas in the treatment of young offenders. It is a sign of progress that we are applying these new methods in dealing with men and women who commit offenses against society. Today men make a study of causes of crime. They look into the past lives of criminals, study their environment, their parentage, and their physical

condition. Many a man has been restored to useful citizenship by a surgical operation. We no longer throw men into narrow damp cells where they die of rheumatism and tuberculosis. Public opinion is demanding that society should treat criminals in a more humane way. To Thomas Mott Osborne and others great credit is due for introducing new ideas in the treatment of criminals. At Auburn Prison in 1914 Mr. Osborne organized the Mutual Welfare League, and at Sing Sing Prison was organized the "Golden Rule Brotherhood."

Some people say that life in prison is being made too pleasant with baseball and concerts. Others say that no matter how attractive life in prison may be there is no danger that men will commit crimes in order to attend baseball games at Sing Sing. The hope of reforming these men lies in treating them as men and not as outcasts of society — say those who favor the new methods.

Your Responsibility as a Citizen

If we are to have good laws, good courts, good juries, and good prisons, every citizen must be made to feel that he is personally responsible for these things, and that he must help in every way he can. Every good citizen, boy or girl, man or woman, must know something about the laws he or she lives under. The great duty resting on a citizen is to obey the law and to have respect for the people whose duty it is to carry out the law. These laws are made for all of us by men we elect to office.

If we want good courts, we must elect honest, upright, public-spirited men. It is our duty as citizens to find out what qualifications these men have for office. We must not vote for them merely because they are our friends. We must talk over the qualifications of the candidates with neighbors who have not had the educational opportunities we have had. If we want good juries, we must at all times be ready when called upon to serve as jurors, not offer excuses to avoid service. If a man places his business interests above those of the community, he should be the last one to criticize the way in which justice is administered.

Every citizen, from the youngest to the oldest, should help whenever he is called upon to do so by the proper official. He should report all violations of the law to the proper department. He must not say, "That is not my business." It is most decidedly his business if he wants his community to be a happy, healthful, peaceful place to live in. A government is as good as its citizens make it. A great responsibility will rest in a few years upon the students of today — the responsibility for good government.

A famous English writer on American politics, Mr. Bryce, said: "What the bony skeleton is to the body, what the steel ribs are to a ship, that to a state is its law." The high school boy and girl must observe the rules of conduct or "laws" laid down in home and school, if he or she hopes to be considered a good citizen. As Wordsworth says: "The child is father of the man." In a few short years our nation will be proud to enroll those who are now law-abiding boys and girls, as voters, to take their places in the ranks of loyal Americans who believe in progress under law.

CHAPTER XVI

CORRECTION OF THE DELINQUENT

BY

Evander Childs High School

The Problem of the Criminal

There is found in every American community the problem of how to care for the criminally deficient who come under its jurisdiction. According to "The Century Dictionary," a criminal is "A person convicted of a punishable public offence on proof or confession." But does not the word call up a horrible creature — violent, dangerous, cruel, and outwardly revolting? In the past this conception of the criminal led to his being subjected to inhuman and unutterable tortures. These were comparatively light in the New World as compared with those of the old. Yet, as late as 1778, the death penalty was inflicted for as many as thirteen offenses. Such transgression of the law, as "denying the true God and his attributes," or a sixteen-year-old child's striking his parents, was punishable by death.

Punishments of Former Days

For smaller offenses instruments and means of corporal punishment were maintained. Whipping posts and stocks were quite common. For breaking the Sabbath, the offender would be compelled to stand in the pillory for hours before the gaze of the public eye. Burning at the stake was also frequently inflicted, mostly on heretics and women who were considered "witches" and "aided by the devil." Little or no evidence was necessary to convict them. In the early days, here in our city, some unique and novel means of punishment were used, which were intended to inspire fear by humiliation. A Dutchman who stole cabbages was sentenced by the court "to stand in the pillory with the cabbages on his head." For taking a false oath

before the Governor, a colonist was brought to a whipping post before the city hall and in public was forced to stand for one hour with a paper pinned upon him stating the crime he had committed. The fining of an offender was also common as a punishment for an affront.

Until the end of the eighteenth century the detention of those awaiting trial, or the punishment of debtors was the only function of prisons. These old prisons were usually places where criminals of every type would be thrown together: a youth, with a hardened and desperate prisoner; diseased and mentally unbalanced, with normal people. Here a man would be deprived of his liberty and supplied with the coarsest portions of food. The cell was infested with vermin and filth, and was a great menace to health.

These cruelties deformed the criminal, broke his health, and rendered the "horrible creature" not altogether imaginary. This old theory of the science of penology (punishment) was to break the spirit of the prisoner through cruelty; to insure his not engaging in further crime by instilling fear. The result of all this was often an ex-convict who thirsted for revenge.

Modern Improvements

But time changes and with it the welfare of humanity. In these last few centuries the greatest improvements have been effected in every thoroughfare of life. Great inventions (in centuries past universally considered miracles and impossible) such as the airplane, radiophone, and phonograph, have been perfected.

In medical science cures for almost every known disease have been found. Where hundreds of towns were once wiped out by the curse of some plague, modern methods of sanitation, prevention, and cure have saved thousands of human lives and proved of tremendous and inestimable value to the human race. And so it goes, the passing of the centuries bringing with it the growth of civilization in every field with which human beings come in contact. But one of the greatest of achievements, one that indicates the rapid growth of civilization, that stands in

itself unique and lofty, that shines resplendent, a bright star of good in the darkness of human selfishness and greed, is the earnest endeavor for the welfare of others.

Centuries ago the idea of reformation of a criminal was considered absurd, if ever thought of at all. If a man had committed a crime, however trivial, punishment, terrible torture, or death, followed. Now we have the hope that men may be released from prison to a life of good citizenship. Let us see how the City of New York strives to accomplish this.

NEW YORK'S ISLAND INSTITUTIONS.

Under the city's care come those who have committed misdemeanors (crimes punishable by less than state imprisonment).

The City's Prisons

These offenders New York confines in the following institutions:

City Prison, Manhattan, commonly called "The Tombs."
City Prison, Brooklyn.
City Prison, Queens.
New York County Penitentiary, Welfare Island.
Correction Hospital (Workhouse), Welfare Island.
Municipal Farm, Riker's Island.
Reformatory Prison, Hart's Island.
New York City Women's Farm, Greycourt, Orange County (opened in 1924).
Warwick Dairy Farm, Warwick, Orange County.
New York City Reformatory, New Hampton Farms, Orange County.

In these prisons the Department of Correction has definite problems to cope with, and the way it has met them is what we are interested in.

At the New York County Penitentiary on Welfare Island (formerly called Blackwell's) male convicts are inspected after

Careful Classification of Cases and Individual Treatment

they have been sentenced. The record of each individual is taken — his name, residence, occupation, parents, sentence, finger prints, etc. The offenders are then separated into different groups. The insane, who are not really criminals, are conveyed to Dannemora and Matteawan and those wards who need medical attention remain on Welfare Island. First offenders go to the reformatory at New Hampton Farms; every week or

THE NEW BUILDING AT GREYCOURT, ORANGE COUNTY, FOR FEMALE CONVICTS.

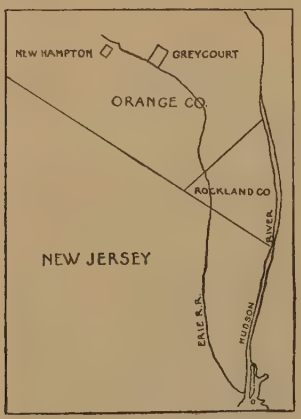
ten days there are enough of these to fill a special car, which is attached to an Erie train. Old offenders are sent to Hart's Island, drug addicts, to Riker's. In the Correction Hospital, also on Welfare Island, women prisoners are segregated and classified within the same building, necessitating separate mess groups, instead of being scattered among several institutions.

By classifying prisoners, greater efficiency is obtained since they can be sent to buildings that are properly equipped and located, whereas it would be impossible for one institution to

have all the necessary facilities. What is more important, prisoners who are not of bad character are segregated from those who have a degenerating influence.

An Honest Day's Work

Even in prison we find a regular working day. The prisoners of Hart's Island are kept employed at tailoring, weaving, shoemaking, painting, and printing. Masonry and farming are carried on during the suitable months; and there is also an ice plant. At Riker's Island the work is almost entirely agricultural, while at New Hampton Farms the wards are engaged in canning, agriculture, husbandry, butchery, dairying, and baking. Women prisoners do laundry, sewing, gardening, and stenographic work. All activities have thoroughly modern equipment. The products thus secured greatly reduce the cost of maintenance. Furthermore, it has been found that prisoners busily occupied are much more apt to remain in a healthy and sane condition.



LOCATION OF REFORMATORY, ORANGE COUNTY.

A daily schedule much in favor is the following:

5.30	Reveille
5.45	Setting up exercises
6.15	Making up quarters
6.20	Sick call
7.00	Breakfast
7.30–11.30	Shop — every one working
11.30–11.45	Wash for dinner
11.45	Recall
12.00	Dinner
1.00–4.00	Shop — every one working
4.00–6.00	Washing, liberty in yard, baths, shaves, purchases, calls, visits, etc.

6.00	Recall
6.15	Supper
7.00–9.00	Classes and entertainments
9.30	Taps

Some day we hope we shall see an honest and truly unselfish coöperation between the powerful social forces of church, home, and school which will direct their efforts toward curbing the

Delinquents at Work on the City's Farm in Orange County.

criminal tendencies of our juvenile delinquents so that their adult years will find them occupying an honest place in organized society and not a place behind the bars of a penal institution. Concerning this Commissioner Hamilton said: "In reformation of offenders, stress is given to the development of their minds, as we realize that the majority of crimes committed is due to lack of education, in the true sense of the word. Interest is aroused in his own mental and physical development and

the ambitious youth forges ahead, while the dull and less progressive is given every possible assistance and encouragement."

Education to Meet Personal Needs

Evening schools are maintained, and prisoners *must* reach the 6A grade; farther than that is optional. Besides this, there are educational pictures, shown in the assembly hall, and correspondence courses. At the disposal of the institution is a library containing books both interesting and instructive. Through the work he does every man may learn a trade.

TIER OF CELLS IN PENITENTIARY ON WELFARE ISLAND.

Recreation for Mind and Body

Every day the prison inmates receive some sort of bodily recreation. At New Hampton Farms, where the space permits, we find organized athletics in the form of baseball. Under the head of recreation the libraries and motion pictures also come. There are stores that sell to the men small supplies of tobacco, chocolate, and other inexpensive luxuries. Moreover (and this is very unusual in corrective institutions), prisoners are permitted unlimited mail.

Protestants and Catholics have each a separate service on

Sundays, while Jews worship on Saturday. To every man is furnished a Bible.

Religious Influences

Not much can be said in favor of the Penitentiary on Welfare Island, which was built nearly a century ago, except that it is remarkably strong and long-lived. The women's quarters in the Workhouse, however, are far better. In each case cells have a cot bed with mattress, blankets, sheets, and pillow cases. But the women have an outside barred window, whereas the men have a barred window, opening on a passageway about which is the outside wall of the prison, containing many strong windows. As a result, the women's cells are better lighted. Doors are of iron. In addition to this, women prisoners are allowed to express their own personal taste in the decoration of their cells. At Greycourt and New Hampton there is a strong screen instead of a cell wall with a window. Therefore, a great deal more light enters the cell. The advantage of the passageway is that prisoners attempting to escape by removing the bars from the windows may more easily be seen working in a passageway than in a cell.

Wholesome and Sanitary Living Conditions

Prisoners are served with food that is clean, wholesome, varied, and well prepared by professional cooks. A weekly menu, designed with consideration for the nutritive and money standards, is prepared and changed every three months. In fact, the food compares favorably with that of the private summer camps so popular throughout the eastern United States. (What a change from the old bread and water ration!) In the mess hall we find clean sanitary equipment, the former dangerous agate ware having been replaced by aluminum. Gone also is the old striped uniform of the convict. The clothing now supplied is the same as any dark-hued, plain civilian apparel. This is in keeping with the modern theory that a prisoner is simply an erring man, not a despicable outcast.

The Incentive of the Indeterminate Sentence

An indeterminate sentence is a sentence with a minimum and a maximum punishment limit. The judge gives a sentence of from say one year to eighteen months. Then if at the end of

one year the man's conduct has been good, he is released but has to report periodically to the Parole Board until the expiration of the eighteen months. If on the other hand his conduct is bad, he stays the whole eighteen months. (A prisoner does not have to report if he serves a maximum sentence.) It is well to note here that the indeterminate sentence is the keynote of the modern prison system.

DORMITORIES, MESS HOUSE, AND STOREHOUSES ON RIKER'S ISLAND.
Drug addicts are under treatment here.

The New York State Commission on Prison Reform presents, among others, the following outstanding arguments in support of the indeterminate sentence idea:

"If the object of our penal system is punishment for crime and nothing more, then, indeed, it may be argued that a hardened criminal, by a sentence of a given number of years, expiates the crime committed and is entitled to his freedom. But if the object of the penal law is to protect society by the con-

finement of those who prey upon it, there is nothing to be said for the system under which hardened criminals are, after a definite period of imprisonment, released to resume their practices."

Defects of the Definite Sentence

The definite sentence plan has been a distinct failure. It places upon the court an insurmountable task of administering justice to the criminal and protection to the society whose laws

IN THE DORMITORY, RIKER'S ISLAND.

he has violated, at one and the same time. It is hardly fair to sentence Mr. Habitual Offender and Mr. First Offender both to the same number of years imprisonment for some definite crime. How is the judge, with the same human limitations as you or I, to know exactly how many days, months, or years are necessary to make the erring one realize the value of honest dealings?

Under the indeterminate sentence plan, the accidental offender will show his character by good behavior in prison and will be

released sooner than the devil-may-care, hardened criminal who steals because he thinks it makes an easy living for him.

Besides, one must consider the offender who comes to prison in a diseased condition. Under the indeterminate sentence he would remain in the prison hospital until he is cured and in a normal state. Furthermore, a definite system deadens the hope of the convicted man. He does not have to show the best side of his character, for whether his actions are good or bad he must serve a definite term of imprisonment. With the knowledge that his good behavior will win him freedom, he becomes eager and enthusiastic, and habits of perseverance and industry develop in him, which affect his after-prison life. In addition to this the indeterminate sentence cuts down expenses vastly.[1]

Parole

Parole is a pledge of good conduct given by a person convicted of crime as a condition of exemption or release from confinement in prison. Accordingly a person who has been sentenced to an indeterminate period of imprisonment may be released on parole on condition of good behavior. During this parole period he is required to report from time to time to the parole officer who has him in custody. For a violation of his parole he may be returned to prison.

Parole will not take its proper place in the history of penology until it becomes, not only a mere appendage of the indeterminate system, but a material aid in helping the prisoner to find a foothold in the world outside the prison. At the present time, parole exists in principle, for we have a Parole Commission in New York City of five members (three appointed and two official ex-officers) which was provided in 1915. The Commission, however, needs time to overcome the serious handicaps which now prevent the accomplishment of its best service to the men outside of prison and to society in general.

Release

When a man is released from our city institutions he is set free with a full suit of clothing, five dollars in his pocket, and a ticket to the place in which he was arrested.

[1] Burdette G. Lewis, "The Offender," p. 136.

Other Considerations

There are still several matters that come under the care of the department which have not yet been taken up, such as the district prisons and the records of the department. The district prisons are used largely for the purpose of detaining persons awaiting trial and are connected with the Magistrates Courts. Here, as in the other prisons, all cleaning is done by the prisoners. In the Municipal Building, the Hall of Records,

THE CONVICTS' BAND AT HART'S ISLAND.
One of the many ways in which the inmates are taught to work together.

and the Criminal Court Building may be found thousands of volumes holding New York's criminal data, which range from the time this city was a Dutch colony until now.

The Prison of the Future

Yet our prisons are far from perfect. The future prison will probably be based on Thomas Mott Osborne's ideas which are only partially acceptable at present. The basis of this system is the indeterminate sentence for all offenders. In prison the man is trained to cope with the life he will encounter upon his release.

Upon his entry he must be examined and classified. He must be declared sufficiently sound of mind and body to be a candidate for prison and not for a custodial hospital or insane asylum. Then he is assigned to a "middle" prison where he is classed neither as an honor prisoner nor an incorrigible. His fate rests entirely in his own hands. Through the barred windows of the prison he should be allowed to see at work the prisoners who have earned the privilege of living without the walls. After having participated in the prison life and having proved to the satisfaction of his *fellow-prisoners* that he is fit to be trusted with the honor and obligation, he is elected by *them* to the Mutual Welfare League and is moved to a position outside of the walls.

The Mutual Welfare League

Here he has a limited choice of occupation — farming or continuation of the manufacturing trade he began in the middle prison. Life in the outer prison should be a self-governing democracy, a community wherein the citizens have definite responsibilities toward their fellow-citizens. Should a man show himself unworthy of the outer prison, he is sentenced by the prisoners' court and exiled back to the middle prison. On the other hand, there is an inner prison to which those not capable of sustaining even the moderate freedom of the middle prison are consigned. Here the most incorrigible are secluded and kept at simple labor. Thus the emphasis is always on the amount of liberty. This makes a man desire more freedom.

The difference between this and the present system is that the judging of a prisoner rests in the hands of his fellow-prisoners, his peers, even as the jury who sentenced him consisted of his peers. A man is detained so long as it is thought his reformation is not completed. This is determined by his conduct in prison and the nature of his crime. Then after release he is required to report his conduct periodically for a certain length of time to show that his redemption is permanent.

While in prison all prisoners are paid full wages for work done, thus enabling the men to support their families or secure a financial start toward the day of their release.

This kind of prison is not imaginary, nor does it aim to encourage crime by offering better conditions within the prison than a man has without. The emphasis on liberty prevents this. "Since the organization of the League in Sing Sing, the physical appearance of the men is better; their mental condition is better; the output of industries has increased 21 per cent; dope has been practically eliminated; discipline is better, the

Convicts at Hart's Island Weeding in a Patch of Swiss Chard.

number of wounds dressed in the hospital during 1915 having decreased 64 per cent from previous years."[1] Judge William H. Wadhams of the Court of General Sessions of New York City said, in January, 1916, "I have not had one single man come before me for sentence, who has come out of Sing Sing since the League was organized."

[1] From leaflet "Suggestions for Sermon Material" issued by National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor.

The League Plan Compared with Our City Plan

The League system does not claim to reform all the men in prison, or to make them all easy to discipline, but it *does claim* that the percentage of success in its case is far greater than that of the prisons still under the old system. New York fails in having the authorities, instead of a fellow-prisoner, judge an inmate's rewards and punishments. This still savors of the olden theory.

Conclusion

It is rather interesting to note that under prohibition the number of the city's criminal wards has decreased by about one third. The Warwick Farm, which was to have been used exclusively for drunkards, has not a single inmate sentenced for drunkenness. And the commission which was appointed to take charge of that field of endeavor asked to be disbanded because of lack of work.

Nor is New York the only locality that has profited from prohibition. Thirty-four Indiana jails were empty three months after the eighteenth amendment was ratified. In Norwich, Connecticut, the State Farm for Drunkards which, prior to July 1, 1919, was crowded, was closed September 1, 1919, for lack of inmates. The City of Vereton, Iowa, converted the city jail into a tool house in May, 1920. There are thousands of such instances in every State. With a more rigid enforcement of this measure, the further development of the reform idea, and the elimination of dope, it is more than possible that the criminal wards in our corrective institutions, costing the city more than $2,000,000 per annum, may become a thing of the past.

CHAPTER XVII

FINANCING THE CITY

BY

Erasmus Hall High School

Introduction

A million and a half a day! Do you, fellow citizens, realize that this sum is spent each day by the city of New York for the upkeep of its various activities? Greater New York at the present time actually spends four hundred fifty million dollars a year, a sum larger than that disbursed by six of our western states annually. If this million and a half were divided equally among New Yorkers it would amount to about ninety dollars each per year — nearly double the sum that was needed a few decades ago. This continued increase in the city's expenditures during the last few years may be attributed to the steady growth of the city both in population and extension of its civic activities.

From the preceding facts and figures it is obvious that the administration of the city's financial affairs constitutes a vast problem which should command the attention and thought of every intelligent citizen.

Financing the City's Bills

Let us attempt to analyze this problem. A study of the city's financial affairs resolves itself into the following questions: First, how much are we going to spend in the next twelve months? Second, from what sources are we going to get this sum? Third, how is the money to be collected? Last, but not least, how shall we disburse this million and a half a day to the best advantage?

The first problem confronting the city is that of determining the amount needed to pay the city's bills for the coming year.

Estimating Expenditures (How Much Are We Going to Spend During the Next Twelve Months?)

This is called "Estimating the City's Expenditures." In this respect, the city is somewhat similar to a business corporation, which must estimate its expenses in order to obtain an approximate estimate of the amount it will expend for salaries, raw-materials, advertising, and other business essentials.

The elected executives of the City of New York form an organization which may in some measure be compared to a Board of Directors, while the many appointive heads of departments and bureaus act as managing assistants. It is the task of each of these assistants to collect data as to the amount of money his particular department will need for the coming year. Before August 1, these estimates must be submitted to the Board of Directors of the city, — the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

As an illustration, let us consider the Fire Department. The Fire Commissioner obtains from various city heads of bureaus information as to the amount necessary for conducting the various parts of his department for a year. Then he figures up his total, which includes salaries, the sum necessary to replace worn equipment, and a sum that will cover extra expenses for expansion, necessitated by increase in population. The total is called the "Tentative Budget" for the Fire Department.

The other department heads proceed in the same manner as the one just described. The information they obtain must be based largely on the amount spent during the year just past, plus what it is estimated will be required to meet the increased needs of the people. On or before October 10 the complete tentative budget is printed and any citizen or association asking for a copy may have it. Now let us see what happens to the Fire Commissioner and his tentative budget.

A meeting of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment is then called. This is presided over by the Mayor, flanked by the Comptroller, the President of the Board of Aldermen, and the five Borough Presidents. A tap of the Mayor's gavel calls the meeting to order.

The clerk, seated in front and directly below the Mayor, announces the business of the meeting to the members and the spectators, who are heads of real-estate and taxpayers' associations, and to interested citizens. Below the clerk and within the inclosure are the Fire Commissioner and the clerks who have assisted him in the framing of his departmental estimate. The Commissioner is questioned by the Board concerning the necessity of various items on this budget. He defends his demands explaining why he cannot get along with less money if his department is to be run efficiently.

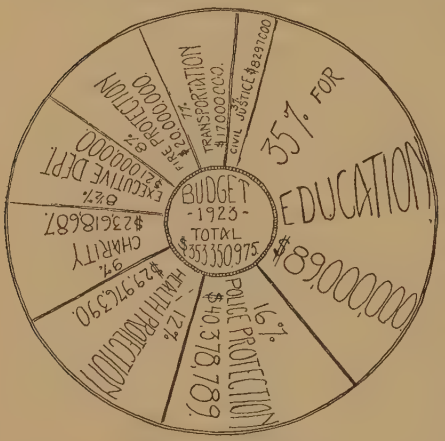
The heads of the taxpayers' associations are then given an opportunity to show that the Commissioner's estimate should be reduced. For instance the Fire Commissioner asks for money to purchase twelve engines. He has shown how necessary they are. After defending his views the members of the Board of Estimate try to show the Commissioner how he can get along with eight instead of twelve engines. Thus they attempt to reduce the sum asked for.

How the Board of Estimate and Apportionment Adopts the Budget.

It is easy to imagine the consternation of the Commissioner as some one shows apparently indisputably that some large item is unnecessary, or of the questioner when a particularly big sum is proved indispensable. Each department head must go through a similar experience. Then the Board holds executive sessions, at which the members express themselves without restraint in regard to the several departmental budgets that have come under their consideration. It is at these meetings that the items are cut down to such an extent that when the budget is finally adopted, the Commissioner can seldom recognize the document he originally submitted.

At a formal meeting of the Board of Estimate, held before November 1, the Budget, as it is now called, is finally adopted and sent to the Board of Aldermen, the city legislative body, which has twenty days to consider it. This Board treats the budget simply as a proposed ordinance, refers it to the Finance Committee, which holds meetings and hearings, and finally

suggests reductions, for the power of the Board of Aldermen is limited to reducing the amounts — they may in no case raise the items. The Budget is sent to the Mayor, who, after all this formality, and display of red tape, may restore any of the items to what they were before the Board of Aldermen acted on them. The Board may override the Mayor's veto of their reductions by a three-fourths vote. This is seldom done. It is, therefore, apparent that the Board of Aldermen has very little power.



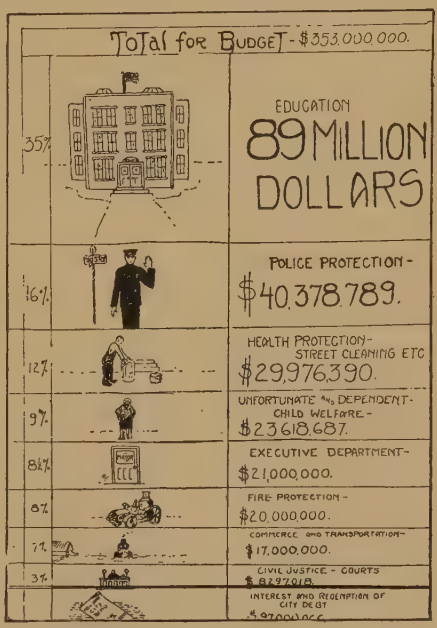
BUDGET FOR 1923.
Showing amount appropriated for important activities.

This is the annual procedure, beginning in June and ending in December, in preparing the city's budget. In the year 1923, the total of proposed expenses was to be over $353,000,000. For what? The city employs about 95,000 in all, including teachers, patrolmen, firemen, street-cleaners, clerks, and thousands of day laborers and mechanics. This vast army is paid out of the public treasury of the city. The greater city owns over four hundred public elementary schools, about thirty high schools, two colleges, fire houses, police stations, beautiful parks, bridges, docks, well-equipped playgrounds, public buildings, city hall, court houses, jails, hospitals, and asylums. The upkeep and improvement of these many possessions require a vast sum annually. As the services of the above-mentioned officials are for the benefit of the people and as the lands and buildings and other property of the city are for the public use,

who but the people, through payment of taxes, shall maintain them?

How the City Raises the Needed Money. (From What Sources Are We Going to Get This Vast Sum?)

Now that the budget has been accepted and we can see for what the money is to be spent, we come to the very practical question: How shall these $353,000,000 be raised? There are two sources, the Real and Personal Property Tax; and the General Fund, which includes all city receipts, as, water rates, income taxes, bank taxes, mortgage taxes, rentals, permits, licenses, privileges, and other sources of revenue. The principal source, however, is the tax on real property.



ILLUSTRATIVE DIAGRAM OF 1923 BUDGET.

Real property consists of land or land and buildings owned by persons or corporations. This general property tax yields over 60 per cent of the total asked for in the budget. The owner of a building pays directly, while the rent-payer gives indirectly, as part of the rent goes to pay the tax. Think of the many kinds of buildings in the city and their value. Some one must determine what each building is worth, not the value the owner places on it. This work is done by the Department of Taxes and Assessments which is administered by a Board of Taxes and Assessments. The Board accepts the value of private rights-of-way and terminals

— railway stations as assessed by the State Board of Tax Assessors.

The great burden of determining the value of real property falls on the Deputy Commissioners who are civil service employees, familiar with the property that they appraise. There are about 70 such deputies and each one has a district where he is thoroughly familiar with the land value and also that of the buildings. Beginning in April these deputies go through the sections assigned them and enter into books the value of every parcel of land and its improvements.

They assign to every piece of real property its market value — what it will sell for. This is known as the *assessed valuation*. But now that Mr. Jones knows what the city thinks his house is worth, how much does he pay in taxes? That depends upon the tax rate.

The Board of Aldermen is furnished by the Comptroller with a statement of the amount which it is estimated the city will receive from sources other than the foregoing. The Board of Aldermen subtracts this amount from the total amount of the budget thereby determining the amount of revenue that must be raised by the tax on Real Property. This remainder is divided by the total *assessment roll*, the value of all taxable real property. Let us illustrate. Suppose the city budget calls for an expenditure of $350,000,000 and the estimated General Fund revenue is $65,000,000, $285,000,000, the remainder, must therefore be raised from the real and personal property tax. If the assessed value of property is $10,000,000,000, we divide that into 285,000,000 the rate being $2.85 for every $100 of assessed value. That is, if Mr. Jones's house is valued at $10,000, he pays 100×2.85 or $285 a year as a tax on his property.

The statement of the tax-rate is presented in the form of an ordinance to the Board of Aldermen who adopt it at their meeting on the first of March. This is sent to the Comptroller whose department issues tax bills on what the Board of Taxes and Assessments has fixed as the rate.

If Mr. Jones thinks that the deputy has made a mistake in estimating the value of his property, he may, during the month of October and the first half of November, make application for a reduction of the assessment. The deputy justifies the assessment to Mr. Jones and if he is still dissatisfied, he is granted a hearing before the Tax Commissioners, whose decision is final.

Assessed Valuation May Be Reduced

Suppose Mr. Jones, after calling for his tax bill at the office of the Receiver of Taxes and noticing that one half the taxes are due before May 31, and the second half before the end of November, decides that he will not pay as he still feels that he is being overtaxed, he will find that at the end of three years his property will be sold for unpaid taxes and interest. Mr. Jones has three years more to pay the interest and reduce the lien the city has on his property. If he fails to do this, the purchaser may foreclose the property in the same way as a mortgage is foreclosed and the surplus, if there is any, is deposited in court for Mr. Jones' benefit. By that time Mr. Jones will have learned his lesson and will pay his taxes when due.

The real estate of public service corporations is included in the property tax. Two deputies of the Department of Taxes and Assessments are assigned the task of assessing the value of this real estate, which includes all improvements in streets, waterways, and public places, together with value of the land and right-of-way of these corporations.

Public Service Corporations work under special franchises. Their property consists of rails, pipes, wires, and the like, situated in streets, waterways, and public places. They have the privilege of building, maintaining, and operating a public service by the aid of such improvements. The local assessors evaluate these and tax them in the same manner as they tax other real estate.

Collection of Personal Property Tax

The Personal Property Tax is levied on such things as furniture, automobiles, stocks, bonds, and mortgages. This tax does not bring much revenue to the city. Only those who possess a large amount of personal property are asked to pay

the tax. In fact, many people conveniently swear off their personal taxes, so that it is difficult to determine in advance how much will actually be collected.

How many of you have wondered where money for the Coney Island Boardwalk came from? It is advertised in the Brooklyn Rapid Transit. You hear about it everywhere, but who built it? The city. Such improvements, the openings of streets, and building of sewers, are paid for by "special assessments."

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WHERE SUCH PERSONAL PROPERTY AS STOCKS AND BONDS MAY BE BOUGHT AND SOLD.

Special Assessments Pay for Local Improvement

The Board of Assessors, as the name implies, levies these assessments and also has power to award damage to various persons or corporations because of the grading of streets and building of subways. Its most important duty, however, consists in levying the assessments. In doing this it tries to put the burden of taxation on those who receive the most benefit from the improvement.

On the other hand, if the people think that they are being unjustly discriminated against, they have the right of appeal. Recently the city built a large and very expensive sewer through Classon Avenue, Brooklyn, and the Board of Assessors put the entire cost upon the property-owners on that avenue. Upon complaint, the taxpayers received partial redress, but they were still dissatisfied, so they appealed to the State Legislature, which passed a law that one third should be paid by the adjacent land-owners and two thirds by the city as a whole.

State Pays City Money

A share of the income tax collected by the state is turned over to the city treasury. An income of over five millions was received from a tax on bank shares; but the United States Supreme Court declared the law taxing bank shares unconstitutional, and the State Legislature has since changed the law so that it now conforms to the Constitution.

Money is received from people who are forced to place mortgages on their property. Special stamps are purchased at the County Clerk's office.

The city grants permits for stands in ferry houses and other places. The privilege to have a stand in the Staten Island ferry slip sold for $71,000 a year. Others rent for smaller sums.

Income Received from Rents and License Fees

The Department of Licenses collects a good deal of revenue, as there are thirty-five different kinds of businesses that are licensed and supervised. Among these are peddlers' licenses which pay $4 each a year; motion picture theaters, $600 a year; hand organs, $5; theaters, $500; concerts, $50; sight-seeing cars, $5; pawn brokers, $500; junk shops, $20; newspaper stands, $5; fruit stands, $10; and boot-black chairs, $5.

The money received from special assessments, from the state, from renting, and from licenses goes into what is known as the "General Fund."

Property Exempt from Taxation

One fifth of the real property in the city, valued at approximately twenty billion dollars, is free from taxation. The people pay higher taxes because of this exemption. Is this property used for the benefit of the people of the city? Judge for your-

selves. All United States property — navy yards, forts, post-office buildings; state property — armories, government buildings, canal lands, asylums; and the large amount of city property — schools, police stations, city hall, court buildings, jails, houses for aged, hospitals; buildings and lands owned by religious corporations, such as, churches, monasteries; all are exempt. Many of the colleges and schools, such as Columbia and New York University, do not pay taxes, while buildings used for charitable purposes, such as religious orphan asylums, homes for aged, and hospitals, pay nothing to help support the city.

From all the sources just enumerated the Real Estate, Personal Property, Tax, and General Fund, more than $350,000,000 for 1923 was raised! Is there any limit to the city's expenditures? Certainly we cannot spend any more than we can afford to pay in taxes.

Problem of Collecting Taxes (How Is the Money to Be Collected?)

And now that we have decided how much money we need and from whom it is to come, how are we going to obtain it? To any one who has ever tried to collect money from others, the difficulties attending the solution of this problem are at once apparent. In May, the personal and real-estate taxes fall due, and those who are to pay must call at the office of the Receiver of Taxes for their bills.

In the meantime from January first the city has begun to spend money and receives no income from the property tax until May first.

The City Borrows Money

The Comptroller is empowered to borrow money on short term bonds, called revenue bonds, because they provide money for city expenses between the months of January and May.

The city also borrows money for permanent improvements; building of bridges, docks, water works, school houses, and subways. For this purpose, long term bonds are issued of from ten to fifteen years, varying with the estimated durability of the property acquired. The city also issues special revenue bonds which provide funds for improvements that administrative

officers have neglected to ask for in the budget. In 1923 the Borough Presidents omitted to ask for the $15,000,000 necessary to repair the city streets. This sum was provided for by issuing special revenue bonds which had to be added to the budget for 1924.

The city may also issue corporate stock notes if the money is needed immediately. This money is spent before the bonds are sold and must be paid back out of the sum from the sale of the bonds.

City's Borrowing Power is Limited

There is a limit to everything — even the borrowing power of the city. This is a good thing, however, as the interest on borrowed money would soon become so large as to bankrupt the city if there were no limitations. The actual limit is set at one tenth of the assessed valuation of the property. That is, if the city property is assessed at $12,000,000,000, we may owe only $1,200,000,000. But every year the borrowing power increases, because of the greater value of city property and because there are buildings constantly constructed on which taxes will be paid.

The Pay as You Go Policy

This limitation on the borrowing power is comparatively recent. In 1916 the city was in such financial straits due to extensive borrowing that the Legislature inaugurated the "Pay as You Go" policy. The city was given four years to get into its stride. Each year a larger and larger proportion of the needed money was to be paid by taxation until by 1918 all of the city's possessions not bringing in revenue, such as school buildings, sewers, and other improvements were to be paid for by current taxes. Income-bearing properties, such as subways, docks, and wharves, might be maintained and paid for by fifty-year bonds. During the recent war, it was so difficult to borrow money that the law was amended to permit the borrowing of $15,000,000 per annum for non-revenue-producing activities and to make the life of the bond dependent upon the life of the improvement. In other words, if expert engineers estimated that the life of the sewer or building would be but ten years, the bonds might be

issued for ten years only. This system prevented saddling on future generations the payment of our expenses.

So we see that after having decided how much money we are going to spend and from whom it is to come, we have the rather difficult problem of actually getting it into the treasury. There are ways to induce the public to pay quickly and in full. One of these is to grant discounts for prompt payments, and another is to penalize overdue accounts. This is the way the city has solved its collection problem. Borrowing adds more money to the city treasury, swelling the total.

Paying out the City's Money (What Is Going to Be Done with This Million a Day?)

Who takes care of this daily million, acts as treasurer, and pays it out as needed? To the minds of most people this is the easiest part. "Get the money first," they say. But after studying the workings of the Finance Department, it will be apparent that after all it is not such an easy matter.

The importance of the Department of Finance will be readily shown by the fact that its head, the Comptroller, receives an annual salary of $25,000 and is chosen at the general election, not appointed by the Mayor. The duties of the Comptroller are numerous. He must superintend the collection of taxes, the making of assessments, and the bringing in of miscellaneous revenue. He must audit receipts, pay bills, issue and redeem bonds, buy, sell, and lease real-estate, and pay all claims against the city. He is a member of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the Sinking Fund Commission, and Bank Board.

The Finance Department is divided into three sections for the collection of taxes. 1. The Bureau for Collection of Taxes receives money on real-estate, franchises, personal taxes, and water-rents. 2. The Bureau for Collection of Revenue gets the income from all other sources. 3. The Bureau for Collection of Assessments and Arrears receives overdue money. A fourth division of the Department issues, transfers, pays interest, and redeems stocks and bonds issued by the city.

The City Chamberlain, who is appointed by the Mayor, deposits the city's money in banks, and pays it out upon written

order of the Comptroller. He receives $12,000 a year and commissions. Indeed, so light are his duties that during Mitchell's administration, Henry Bruère, who was Chamberlain for a short time, resigned the office with a recommendation that it

City Chamberlain

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WALL STREET — THE FINANCIAL CENTER OF THE CITY.

be abolished, on the ground that the salary paid to the Chamberlain was simply wasted money. However, the office of Chamberlain still exists.

This next is an amazing fact. Out of the annual $350,000,000

nearly 60 per cent is paid out in salaries. This amounts to $100,000 a day for which the City Paymaster, an official of the Department of Finance, is responsible.

Payrolls showing service performed by teachers, policemen, firemen, street cleaners, clerks, and other city employees are presented to the Department of Finance for payment. Vouchers are issued, which certify that the work has been examined, is satisfactory, and the sum called for will be paid. The Bureau of Audit is responsible for these vouchers. It also certifies as to material and supplies purchased for city use.

The contractor who has just finished building a public school or the stationer who has supplied the Mayor's office with ink, pens, and paper must present a voucher at the office of the Comptroller before he receives his money. Thus the Finance Department is the most responsible agency in the city, for it collects the money from the people and turns it over to the Chamberlain for deposit. It must also pay out the money it has collected for services rendered, and articles purchased.

Business of the Sinking Fund Commission

One of the largest items of the annual budget has to do with paying the interest on the city's debt and also with setting aside a sum for reducing the amount the city owes. The government agency that takes care of the redemption of the city's bonds is called the "Sinking Fund Commission," which consists of the Mayor, Comptroller, Chamberlain, the President of the Board of Aldermen, and the Chairman of the Finance Committee of the Board of Aldermen. This body administers the several sinking funds that provide for the payment of interest. As the long term bonds expire, this fund is used for redeeming them. If the city would not pay its debts, it would have to be declared bankrupt and it could not borrow from any one, for, no one lends to a person that does not pay.

What one of us has not puzzled over some little financial problem of his own? How much greater must be the financial problem of six million people! We collect a million and a half a day, borrow millions every year and pay all this out. Much

of the huge amount of work is done by the Finance Department, the Comptroller being the only elected official who is responsible. Most of the many departments and commissions are interested only in spending money. The Department of Education uses from eighty to one hundred millions per annum. The Police and Fire Departments use another sixty millions. The Health Department uses over thirty-five millions. More than three millions go to charity, and many other objects of expenditure fairly make the public funds vanish like magic. A million and a half a day! Forty thousand every hour! Many hundreds every minute! And still the amount increases. This sum comes principally from the rent-payers and house owners. A million and a half dollars! We could do many things with a million and a half, but few of us could spend that amount in twenty-four hours. And the city spends a million and a half every day!

The Purpose for Which the Money Is Spent

This sum is spent for the benefit of the 6,000,000 inhabitants of the city. It is used to protect our lives and our property by giving us efficient police protection, street lights, and a fire department that not only extinguishes fires but helps to prevent them. Our thousands of unfortunate and dependent persons are looked after in institutions supported from this money. The health of the people must be improved. $30,000,000 a year is spent in cleaning our streets, maintaining sewers, providing us with water, examining our children in the schools, protecting us from bad food, and preventing the spread of contagious diseases.

The education of the people of the city not only in schools but museums, parks, and libraries is provided for by the public fund.

New York would not be a large city if over $17,000,000 were not spent on bridges, docks, ferries, and highways, as these make it the greatest commercial city of the Western Hemisphere. Therefore, while taxation may be burdensome and objectionable to some, it is most necessary to the improvement and en-

largement of any city, and in the case of a city the size of New York it is absolutely vital.

Excerpt from an editorial in the Saturday Evening Post, March 10, 1923. "Taxation and government are almost interchangeable terms. Sooner or later, almost every bill, every measure, every proposal before us entails taxation. How money is raised and how spent goes right to the roots of government. Yet we have only the haziest ideas on the subject, because if we do not pay income or real-estate taxes we have a silly notion that we are getting off scot-free. Yet the deadliest taxes are the hidden ones that deftly trim farmer, laborer, and salaried men.

"Again, after the money has been raised we show small concern about how it is spent. Yet the evidence that comes through the infrequent public investigations of some particularly glaring waste should cause shivers of misgiving to run up and down the tax-payer's spine.

"There cannot be too close a scrutiny of present taxes, or too strong objection raised to any increase of them. Taxation is the great world question. It is the opponent of stability, the real breeder of revolutions, the instrument with which communism stealthily works towards confiscation where it is not strong enough to take by force. Taxation is behind the unrest in England, the invasion of the Ruhr, the bankruptcy of Germany.

"Taxation without representation is no worse than taxation with misrepresentation."

The citizen not only pays city taxes, but also the state and United States have expenses that must be met. Two kinds of taxes are levied, direct and indirect. The former is paid by the taxpayer who knows that he is paying a tax, while the latter is added to the cost of merchandise, and the consumer does not realize he is paying anything to the government.

United States and State Taxes

The sources from which the United States gets its income are income tax, inheritance tax, both of which are direct, while the duties on imported articles and excise taxes are indirect. The state gets its money from an income and inheritance tax,

automobile license tax, corporation tax, and others that are direct, while, as we have seen, most of the city money is collected directly. No doubt three-fold payments are irksome, but governments must have money.

Duty of Citizen in Regard to Taxation

It is the duty of the citizen to pay his taxes and to pay promptly; to realize that the property the government owns is partly his and that he must use it — streets, buildings, school

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UNITED STATES SUB-TREASURY BUILDING, WALL STREET, MANHATTAN.

houses — as if it were his own; to appreciate that the services of the government officials are performed for his benefit.

In case the citizen feels that his taxes are too high or that the money raised is being squandered, he should protest to the proper officials, and, if there is no redress, use his weapon — THE BALLOT!

CHAPTER XVIII

THE CITIZEN AS A VOTER

BY

Eastern District High School

The Part of the Citizen in the Government

People sometimes think that government is something apart from their lives. They realize that they require pure water, wholesome food, a fire department, a police force, sanitary conditions, etc., but they do not appreciate that they must coöperate to form departments that will put them into effect. Once these departments are formed it is necessary to select men who are qualified to act as law-makers and executives in the various divisions. Making the right choice of the men who will be able to legislate and administrate for the good of the community, rather than for their own benefit, who will obtain for the community the maximum efficiency for the minimum money, is not a thing apart from the daily life. To secure a steady, efficient government, economically managed, requires active citizenship. Before a person may be an active citizen he must, if he is not a citizen, go through the process of becoming one.

How a Person Becomes a Citizen

A citizen is one who owes allegiance to a government and is entitled to protection from it. The Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution states, "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside." Two classes of citizens are mentioned — those who are citizens by birth and those by naturalization.

By Birth

The phrase "born in the United States" is given a very broad meaning. A child born in a foreign country or out of the limits of the United States is considered a citizen if his father

is one. However, if the child continues to live abroad, he must, when eighteen years old, register his intention to remain a citizen and become a resident of the United States, and at the age of twenty-one, he must take an oath of allegiance. Children whose parents are aliens and who are born on American ships or on American soil are citizens by birth. If questions over citizenship arise, they are settled by the Supreme Court of the United States. This court considers "all persons born in the United States and not subject to any foreign power, excluding Indians not taxed," as citizens. This even includes a child born in the United States of Chinese parents, they being at the time of its birth residents of the United States and engaged in business here.

The phrase "under the jurisdiction thereof" brings forth new difficulties. Persons living in a territory or possession of the United States, although they may have pledged allegiance to and received protection from the Government, are not granted political rights and privileges as citizens unless the territory is an incorporated one, as in the case of Alaska. President Taft, on August 24, 1912, signed a measure granting to the inhabitants of Alaska a territorial form of government. The acts of the two legislative houses are subject to the veto of the Governor and to annulment by Congress. The first measure passed extended the franchise to women.

Are the inhabitants of the Philippines, of Porto Rico, and of Hawaii citizens? Since 1916 the Filipinos have been living under a territorial form of government, although the United States has formally declared its intention to withdraw from the Islands when they shall have established a stable form of government. On March 2, 1917, President Wilson signed a bill extending the rights of American citizenship to the inhabitants of Porto Rico. Congress, by an act passed April 20, 1900, declared that all persons who were citizens of the Republic of Hawaii as of August 12, 1898, or prior, are citizens of the United States.

By Naturalization

Naturalization is the process of becoming a citizen. The Constitution grants to Congress the power to establish a uniform rule of naturalization. In a series of laws Congress grants the right of citizenship to different classes of people.

In 1802, Congress provided for the admission of the following classes: First, aliens who resided for a certain time within the

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ALIENS TAKING THE OATH OF ALLEGIANCE IN BECOMING NATURALIZED AMERICAN CITIZENS.

limits and under the jurisdiction of the United States, to be naturalized individually by proceedings in a court of record. Second, the children of persons so naturalized dwelling within the United States and being under twenty-one at the time of such naturalization. Third, foreign-born children of an American citizen.

In 1922 a law was passed providing for the naturalization of women. Formerly, an alien woman could become a citizen

by marrying a man who was such. On the other hand an American woman would lose her rights of citizenship by marrying a foreigner. Since the enactment of the law of 1922, women do not lose their rights when marrying foreigners; neither do they become citizens by marriage. It will be necessary for all alien women hereafter to make personal application for citizenship and be naturalized.

Steps in Naturalization Process

There are three steps involved in this process. The first step consists of the petitioner's going personally to a federal court and declaring his intention to become a citizen. He can do so immediately after landing or any time thereafter, providing he is at least eighteen years of age. He must give the following information:

Name
Place and date of birth Height Weight
Place at which he boarded the vessel which brought him to the United States.
Name of such vessel and place and date of its arrival in the United States.

Declaration of Intention

The clerk of the court gives the petitioner a copy of this Declaration of Intention or "First Paper" as it is called. One dollar is the charge for it. The second step is the filing of the Petition for Naturalization or the "Second Paper." For this it is necessary that the applicant take with him his Declaration of Intention which must be not less than two years or more than seven years old. He must also have lived in the United States at least five years, and in the state one year. If he arrived in the United States after June 29, 1906, he must first secure evidence of his arrival in the form of a "Certificate of Arrival," which may be secured from the court. The applicant must appear in person, accompanied by at least two witnesses who are citizens of the United States, who have known him personally for five years, and who are prepared to swear that he is of good character, is law-abiding, and a lover of our country and its in-

stitutions. It will not take long if the applicant secures the Petition of Naturalization before he goes to court to show that he is familiar with and ready to answer questions about our government and customs. When these are answered and the fee of four dollars is paid, the applicant is given a certificate showing that his petition has been filed with the court.

Petition of Naturalization

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PROMINENT MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN'S SERVICE PRESENTING SILK AMERICAN FLAGS TO NEWLY-MADE CITIZENS.

The third and last step is the process of naturalization which takes place at least ninety days after the filing of the petition, during which time the government conducts a thorough investigation into the statements of the applicant and his witnesses. The applicant and his witnesses appear in open court. If he can satisfy the court as to his general fitness to exercise the rights and duties of American citizenship, he is called upon to make the following Oath of Allegiance:

First Paper. Oath of Allegiance

"I do hereby declare, on oath, that I absolutely and entirely renounce and abjure all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly to ——the——of—— of whom I have heretofore been a subject; that I will support and defend the Constitution and Laws of the United States of America against all enemies, foreign and domestic; and that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same, SO HELP ME GOD."

Active Citizenship

Citizenship carries with it many privileges and responsibilities. The privileges are easy to remember and are usually exercised. But we must bear in mind the responsibilities as well. Active citizenship means keeping in mind and fulfilling these responsibilities.

Provides for Private Needs

The citizen's first duty should be the realization or the satisfaction of his own and his family's needs. If his family is well fed, well dressed, and housed, he will be a credit to the community. The sum total of all the citizens in the community makes the community, and upon the standard of living of each individual depends the standard of the community. If the people in one section are lazy, poorly clad, and dwelling in dirty, shabby houses we call that community shiftless and lazy. On the other hand a community with well-dressed children and clean and well-built homes reflects industry and thrift on the part of the inhabitants. We see then that an economically independent man supporting himself and his family is a credit and not a drag on the community.

Coöperates in Civic Matters

As soon as he fulfills his obligations to his family he should see what service he can render his community. There are many ways in which he can help. We have noticed in our study of civics that organized bodies exist for the purpose of securing health and safety in the community. The citizen's part is to coöperate with these organized bodies. Of what service would the Departments of Health, Street Cleaning, Fire, etc., be if the people did not coöperate by obeying the laws they issue? The Health Department, for example, has an order demanding that all contagious diseases be reported. A person having a

contagious disease in his home may neglect to report it because he dislikes being quarantined. How could work in checking a disease go on if every one acted in the same way? In like manner the work of the other departments, existing for health and security of the citizen, would be impeded by the infringement of the ordinances.

Obeys Laws

Not only must the ordinances of the various departments be observed, but the laws of the city, state, and nation must be obeyed with equal stringency. For, after all, what is the object of the makers of law? It is simply to have a smoothly running community where all things harmful to the citizen may be eliminated. Each citizen then, by obeying the laws, adds to the possibility of having such a society.

JUSTICE WEIGHING THE IMMIGRANT WHO BECOMES A CITIZEN, AND ONE WHO DOES NOT.

Serves as Juror

One of the important duties of citizenship is that of serving as a juror. There has come down to us from old English times the practice of having an accused man tried by his peers or equals instead of by one man. The reason for this is that men of the same social class living in the same locality as the accused understand him more and are so better able to judge the reason and the extent of the guilt. Each citizen is a member of a certain locality and of a certain social class. Therefore, if some one in the locality is accused of a crime, inhabitants of that locality must be called for jury duty. Knowing

why they are called, these men should eagerly seek to serve as jurors.

Elects Officers

The business of administering a government for so many people is a tremendous one. For this purpose specially qualified men are chosen. If the community thinks that a man has these special qualifications and elects him to office, it is the duty of the man chosen to lay aside all other obligations, and even if the salary is less than that which he would otherwise earn, to accept the position offered him. In this way he has far more opportunity than the average citizen to serve his community.

Helps Support Government

Since with all the citizens lies the duty of determining who have special qualifications to hold office, each citizen must educate himself so that he may be able to make an intelligent choice. He must do this by reading newspapers, current magazines, joining political organizations, and so making himself acquainted with political issues. This organization of city departments, the work of making laws for the departments, and finally the work of carrying out the laws, requires an enormous sum of money. Naturally this money must be supplied by those who receive the benefits offered by the community. The final responsibility an active citizen must willingly and cheerfully bear is the payment of his share of the taxes. The fulfillment of this last duty added to that of his other duties will make him an asset to his community.

Personal Liberty

Many acts that are in themselves right and harmless are forbidden by the law, because they may interfere with the comfort and peace of others. This restraint of individual freedom for the benefit of all is known as liberty within the law.

Besides the right to live, given to every citizen, he also has the right to be free, for without being free he cannot fully enjoy the right to live. But the right to freedom of action stops when the act is one that interferes unjustly with the rights of others. This means that a man has a right to make all the noise he sees fit, but if he tries to exercise this right in the crowded streets of a city, he will be restrained by the officers acting

under the law that forbids him from unnecessarily disturbing his neighbors.

The Protection of Property

A citizen should be obedient. There are laws made by Nature that all people must obey. If they do not obey, they must pay the penalty. So with the laws of our city. If we disobey the laws, we must pay the penalty. If every one understood and would obey the laws, we would need no police force.

The most important duty of the Police Department and the Fire Department is the protection of life and property, but the one that we are most interested in now is the protection of property.

Although we have policemen and firemen to see that the laws are carried out, some people do not obey them. Therefore we need a government to protect us.

The Part of the Citizen in Government

A citizen may travel in foreign countries and claim protection of property from his state. Within the bounds of his state a citizen has the right to demand that his property be protected against foreign foes, against riot, and against assault and robbery. Property must be understood to mean not material goods only but also such intangible wealth as claims and rights arising from inheritance and contracts. A man's home is guarded and severe punishment is visited on its violators. This protection of property is afforded by the state through its public powers and several agencies associated with these.

Freedom of Conduct in Business

There are some rights that have been granted to men in all the civilized nations of the world. The citizens of the United States find these rights guaranteed in the Constitution, namely freedom of the press, of speech, of religion, of owning property, and the right of seeking happiness. In other words every man has certain rights and these rights must not be violated by any one. The business man has the right of owning his business and developing it according to his wishes and no one has the right to stop him from doing this, unless this business man is violating the rights of other men. The worker on the other hand has also the same rights to live and to enjoy happiness; and the employer

must acknowledge these rights, pay him sufficient wages, and see to it, that conditions at the working places are healthful.

In the days of the Pilgrims freedom of conduct was limited. People were compelled to go to church on Sunday. If a Pilgrim indulged in innocent amusements on Sunday, he was considered a sinner. When he returned from church he was obliged to read the Bible. The Pilgrims could not go to libraries or take walks on Sunday. We should be very thankful that a more liberal spirit prevails today.

Freedom of the Press

In England during the eighteenth century, any one who published a criticism of the government was punished. The government, finding its efforts futile, gave up trying to silence the press. By the middle of the eighteenth century freedom of speech and press was allowed.

Our government does not look upon its citizens with suspicion. We may travel from state to state for business or pleasure without official inquiry, and we may change our residence without informing the police. The only limitation upon this freedom comes during time of war, when a nation must have exact knowledge of its man power and accurate information as to the location of its citizens.

In studying the Constitution of the United States we learn that the first ten amendments consist of the Bill of Rights, which provide for personal liberty, personal security, and private property. Our forefathers fought desperately for the right to assemble peacefully. This right has been limited to a certain extent. For example, anarchists or persons who assemble and plan to use force against our government may be prevented from meeting.

Trial by Jury

Trial by jury began in Anglo-Saxon and Norman institutions. When in 1066 William the Conqueror defeated the English he ordered that a census of their houses, land, and cattle be taken. For this purpose he ordered that twelve men in each neighborhood should tell him the facts and swear on their Bible that they would tell the truth. Thus arose the legal right of trial by jury.

Going back to our own country we shall see how trial by jury rules here. Article I, Section 2, of the State Constitution provides for the use of trial by jury. It gives an accused person the right to demand that a jury of twelve important men of the section where the man has been accused determine the truth. If twelve decide that he is guilty he is punished. Trial jurors are selected from a property owners' list furnished by supervisors and town clerks. They must be between the ages of twenty-one and seventy, citizens of the United States, and residents of the county in which they are drawn. Before this jury, the district attorney presents the case. Then the judge explains the law and the jury retire. No one is allowed to talk to them or influence them.

When they return they give their verdict as to whether the accused is innocent or guilty. If twelve men say the prisoner is guilty, it is so reported to the judge and he gives the sentence. If the jury finds the prisoner not guilty the case is dropped. We have two juries, both of early time. The jury before whom cases are tried is called the Petit Jury; another kind of jury is the Grand Jury. This latter consists of twelve to twenty-three men who must try to find out if there is enough evidence against the prisoner to hold him for trial.

When a man is arrested and there seems to be a question of the right to say he is guilty, his friends may go before a judge and ask for a paper, known as the Writ of Habeas Corpus. This writ commands those depriving him of his liberty, to bring him before the judge, so that it may be decided whether or not there is evidence enough to hold him for trial.

Habeas Corpus

This Writ of Habeas Corpus, one of the oldest and most famous rights in America, is so important that it is written in the United States Constitution and in most of the State Constitutions. The President has a right to nullify this law temporarily in time of war or other great dangers, as it was during the Civil War.

The citizen enjoys political liberty because he has the right to govern himself, by voting on laws.

Voting on Laws

On election day the election officers must be in the polling places by five o'clock in the morning, an hour before the voting may begin. The booths are open until five in the evening. When a voter comes to the polling place he approaches the inspector and announces his name and address. The clerk refers to the registration books, and if the elector's name is

Photo by Brown Bros.

WAITING TO VOTE ON ELECTION DAY.

found properly recorded, he is given a folded ballot bearing a number which is entered opposite his name in the book. But if one of the party watchers has reason to doubt the man's right to vote, he challenges, *i.e.*, states his objections. If an elector is challenged he has the privilege of swearing in his vote, and if he does so he is allowed to cast his ballot. But if he refuses to take the oath he is not allowed to vote.

If he is eligible he goes alone into one of the booths, takes the ballot that has been handed to him, and selects the names of the men whom he would like to see selected. He then makes a

cross opposite each name, or in the circle at the top of the column, if those whom he chooses are all of one party. He folds his ballot in the same manner in which he received it, returns to the inclosure where the election officers are, and hands the ballot to the inspector standing by the ballot box. This officer tears off the number stub from the rest of the ballot and drops each part through a slot into the proper ballot box. The boxes are locked and are not opened till the polls are closed. At the close of the election the votes are counted by the election officers in the presence of any citizens who may wish to witness the count. The nominees who have received the largest number of votes are declared elected.

Any citizen may run for a public office providing he has the necessary qualifications required by law. As the voter has the right to make laws, to vote for representatives, and to hold public office, it is the duty of each to perform his duties faithfully so that by exercising these rights he may enjoy the fruits of good government.

Qualifying for Suffrage

We live under a government of the people, by the people, and for the people. The persons born or naturalized in the United States, according to the laws, are citizens. All citizens cannot vote. The right to vote is not a personal right belonging to every citizen. It is purely political, wholly within the power of the state to extend or withhold from any class of citizens. Each state regulates matters of voting, and, therefore, we have a great variety of requirements. In all states a voter must be a citizen of the United States and twenty-one years of age. In all states certain classes of abnormal persons, such as idiots, lunatics, and criminals, are excluded from the privilege of voting.

To vote in New York State, a citizen must be twenty-one years of age, and a resident of the state one year; of the county four months; and of the election district thirty days preceding the election.

An amendment was added to the New York State Constitution, which went into effect January, 1922. This amendment

states that all new voters must be able to read and write English. A citizen must also register in person before the Registry Board at the time of registration before he may vote.

Every voter should find out all he can about the chosen candidate so that he may vote intelligently. To do this he should attend political meetings and discussions, and read newspapers and current magazines.

REGISTRATION OF VOTER. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

Joining a Political Party

A political party is a general organization of citizens who hold the same opinions concerning the conduct of government. If a voter wishes to join a political party he must enroll on Registration Day.

Before a voter joins a party he reads the papers and sees what the platforms of each party are. After he has studied each party's views, he decides to which party he will belong. Many do not care to belong to a particular party, but prefer to vote independently.

Party members may vote for any candidates on the ballot regardless of the party they belong to. The different parties have state and national conventions for the purpose of selecting candidates at the next general election. The platforms of the respective parties are also decided upon at these conventions.

Holding Office

Persons may hold office in the United States by election, appointment, or may be appointed according to the civil Service System. The general election is held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November.

Persons receiving office by election should feel their responsibility to the people at all times and should see that they carry out the duties of their office to the best of their ability.

Civil Service Reform

Many persons in public office receive their positions by appointment. For example, the Mayor of the city appoints all heads of city departments and the President of the United States appoints all his cabinet members. Various reforms have been adopted to improve the government. Foremost among these is the Civil Service Reform.

The Civil Service Reform is a system of appointment and promotion in the Civil Service of the city, state or nation, based upon merit and fitness, and is determined as far as possible by competitive examinations.

The Civil Service Reform was inaugurated in 1883 when Congress passed the Pendleton Bill which provided for three commissioners not more than two of which were to be of the same political party. These commissioners were to test applicants by fair examination for civil service position. The names of those who successfully passed the examinations were to be put on an eligible list to be referred to when vacancies should occur. The bill also provided that removals should not be made for political reasons. Removals might be made only upon a charge made at a public hearing. Appointees under this competitive system were to hold office during good behavior and efficient service. The passing of this bill was a long step toward the elimination of the "spoils system" started by President Jackson

during his administration to reward his political friends by appointing them to offices formerly held by his enemies. In doing this Jackson made the changes without regard to ability and fitness.

Where the destruction of the spoils system of political appointment has been effected, civil service reformers may devote some of their attention to obtain efficiency as well as permanency in civil service.

The rule of appointment according to merit has been extended until now it reaches every department of the National Civil Service except two classes; namely, the higher officers, including the heads of departments, and postmasters in the fourth class.

Through its three commissioners the State Civil Service Commission enforces the Civil Service Law and reports upon all matters touching the enforcement and effect of the provisions of the Civil Service Law. The commissioners may remove municipal civil service commissioners for incompetency, inefficiency, neglect of duty, or violation of the Civil Service Law. The commissioners approve municipal Civil Service rules and regulations, or amendments thereto, when prescribed by a municipal civil service commission and approved by the Mayor. The commissioners make an annual report to the Governor for transmission to the Legislature. The commission may appoint a chief examiner, secretary, and such other officers, clerks, and examiners as it deems necessary.

The civil service reform, as yet, has not gone farther than to erect a barrier between the public service and the spoils system. Nevertheless it has by that action fully justified itself. One of the greatest privileges given to a citizen is the right to vote. In order to enable the voter to use this right intelligently, the short ballot is being tried out.

Short Ballot

The short ballot system means that fewer offices shall be filled at one time so as to permit the adequate public examination of the candidates by the voters. The subordinate officers can be appointed by the chief executive officer who is elected.

This reform has been suggested because most voters of our city, state, and country are in the habit of voting blindly. This is not always the fault of the voter. To cast an intelligent ballot is difficult because practically nothing is published about the minor candidates. It is then made plain that the voter is overburdened by more questions than he can answer carefully because the average citizen cannot take the time to inquire about each candidate.

If the short ballot principle is used, there will hardly be need of the *initiative, referendum, and recall.*

Initiative

The *initiative,* which under certain conditions gives the voters the right to propose both constitutional and ordinary laws and repeal old ones, arose in the small cantons of Switzerland and in New Zealand in 1845. Proving a success in those countries because of the small number of inhabitants, it was thought worthy of a trial by our western states. Montana, Maine, Missouri, and South Dakota now have a common proviso which provides that all measures pertaining to money affairs of the state government (such as expenses and maintenance of state institutions) cannot become a law by way of the initiative. This as we can all see is a very wise act, for there is nothing more important than that money affairs should be in the hands of a body especially organized for that purpose.

In some American states the initiative differs from that of Switzerland. In Oregon a bill is circulated among the people and, after it has been signed by 8 per cent or more of the voters, it is filed with the Secretary of State who places it on the ballot at the next election. If the majority of voters approve of it, it becomes a law without further formality.

Some people here are of the opinion that the initiative is a very good idea and are wondering why New York does not adopt that principle. They do not realize that if the initiative were adopted it would lessen the responsibility of the Legislature, make an open field for the demagogue or soap-box orator, as we might call him, and waste time and money in

printing a bill which might be is a mere fancy or whim of an idle citizen.

Although the initiative has its bad points, it reminds public officers of their duty to carry out the will of the people, teaches the people to display independence of thought, and enables

Photo by Brown Bros.

AN ELECTION IN SCHOOL.

Every election is in a sense a referendum.

them to propose laws which the Legislature has refused to introduce.

Referendum

Referendum means the referring or carrying back of measures already passed by the Legislature to the voters for their final approval or rejection. It originated in Switzerland and has been in use in many parts of the United States since about the year 1830.

Together with the initiative, the referendum secures the direct right of legislation to the people, and it therefore represents the most advanced stage of self-government.

A typical referendum plan is one that is used in Oregon, South Dakota, Missouri, and in Utah where a vote is held on any bill passed by the Legislature when 5 per cent of the voters sign the petition, provided the bill is not necessary to the immediate preservation of public peace or safety or for the support of the government.

Any state laws which the Legislature declares to be emergency measures, necessary for the peace, safety, or health of the state, may go into effect immediately without waiting for a referendum to be held.

Where the referendum is in use a small percentage who do not like a law or an appropriation may get up a petition against it and on having enough signers, may compel the Secretary of State to place the law before the voters at the following election. If a majority vote against it, it does not become a law. The advantages of the referendum are:

1. It enables the people to control the officials they have elected.
2. It gives the people more voice in making the laws and in defeating laws they think wrong.
3. The people take increased interest in government.
4. The laws may be carefully checked.

The disadvantages of the referendum are:

1. It tends to weaken the responsibility of the legislature as the people cast the final vote for or against a bill.
2. It is expensive because of the cost of printing, holding elections, renting voting rooms, engaging of inspectors and judges.
3. The masses of people have no opinion on most of the subjects submitted by referendum. They also care little or nothing about the good or bad points of a law.
4. It gives the politicians a great opportunity to pervert public opinion.

It is a question open to fair consideration, whether the citizens will get better laws by passing upon them, themselves,

or by giving their best thought on choosing the right kind of representatives.

In order to give the citizens greater control over their officers the *recall* has been adopted in many states. **Recall**

In some states and in many cities the people retain complete control over the officers whom they have elected. Where the recall is in use the voters, upon the complaint or petition of a certain number of citizens, vote upon the question whether a certain officer shall be deprived of his office before the term expires and if the vote is in favor of the officer's removal, he must give up his office before the end of his term.

When an officer is removed, the vacancy is filled by holding a special election at which the officer removed may be a candidate if he so desires. The recall is in operation in many of the cities governed by the commission system and in some cities not thus governed.

The recall has been very severely criticized because of the expense it involves, the fear in which it keeps honest public officials, the opportunities it affords machine politicians, and the lack of interest shown in it by better citizens of the cities. It seems to have served a useful purpose, however, by enabling the people to control their officials after election. It has not been necessary to use it very often but the possibility that it might be employed has served apparently to remind public officers of their obligations to carry out the people's will. Unfortunately the people have used it occasionally to remove officials whose wise acts temporarily aroused popular disfavor.

Numerous evils exist in our judiciary system. The recall of judges may be needed to correct these evils. The fact that the recall could be exercised would cause the judges to feel more keenly their responsibility and it would also restore the confidence of the people in the courts.

On the other hand, some people think that if the recall of judges were permitted the judge instead of deciding a case on its merits would decide according to the way the public wish

him to. This would tend to destroy the independence of the judiciary.

The Direct Primary

Another reform that has been adopted to give the citizen more voice in the government is the *direct primary*. The direct primary is a new election system affording every citizen the right to vote directly for the nomination of public officers as well as for their election. Before the direct primary system, people did not wish to go to the polls because they could not vote for the person they thought best fitted to fill the position. All attempts at reforming the conventions were absolute failures. Later the voters were given the power directly to nominate their party candidates. A new system called the direct primary was introduced. A few weeks before the regular election, a primary election is held. This election is conducted by the same officers and in about the same way as the regular election. Persons who wish to be candidates for a certain party are required to present a petition signed by a certain number of enrolled party members. A party ballot containing the names of the candidates is prepared for each party.

Direct primaries are based upon the assumption that the rank and file of the voters are honest and intelligent and that they should be allowed to express their views on all candidacies at their usual voting place instead of delegating that duty to a few, who being away from home and under pressure, may be led into mistakes.

The direct primary is usually the first step in progressive legislation. It is a method of taking the nomination power from the party ring and placing it directly into the hands of the voters. It also insures good candidates, because any man of integrity can be a candidate.

It substitutes responsibility on the part of enrolled voters for responsibility on the part of machine bosses. Some members of the Legislature came from districts where the nomination of the dominant party is equivalent to election. When in such districts the candidates are nominated by a method that places

the real election in the hands of a few men, it makes a sham of popular government.

It is simpler than other systems. Under the convention system there is a primary followed by various meetings of delegates. Under the direct primary system, except where a single convention may be assigned the duty of drafting a state platform, one day's primary election settles everything and the whole expensive machinery of an outworn system with delegates and conventions innumerable is abolished.

Direct primaries bring out quite regularly from 25 to 95 per cent and in the majority party, especially where there is a sharp contest, from 55 to 85 per cent of the enrolled voters. This is because every voter has a voice in selecting party candidates.

Despite all these facts there are some opponents who point out disadvantages of the direct primary system. It has been charged that by making two campaigns necessary instead of one and rendering these campaigns more expensive than the convention system, the direct primary debars the poor man and favors the rich.

This was denied by the governors and officials of different states who said that it cost only a few hundred dollars and sometimes less to hold their campaigns. These statements prove that the man of limited means is not debarred by the direct primary.

In New York State the direct primary system was used until 1922, when the convention system was substituted for nominating state-wide officers and judges. Later, Governor Smith's message to the State Legislature suggested that the use of the direct primary be restored in New York State and a bill has just been introduced in the Assembly to carry out this plan.

Proportional Representation

Proportional representation is being used in many countries, in order to give minorities fair representation in the government. A reason for the indifference of citizens to their duty in voting is found in their belief that their votes will have no effect because their candidates will either be defeated or elected by such a majority that their votes will not influence the results, hence

they stay away from the polls. It is usually difficult in municipal elections to bring out more than half the potential voters of the city. Proportional representation tends to overcome both these evils, making effective a much larger proportion of the votes cast. This result is not achieved by submerging minorities as in the case of the ordinary method of election, but by providing the means whereby any minority group whose members entitle it to one or more seats in the council, shall have that representation.

Under the proportional representation system, voters of different views have an equal share in the election of the deliberative body that is to make decisions on behalf of all.

Voting by proportional representation is a very simple matter. The voter indicates on his ballot his order of preference by marking (1) after his first choice, (2) after his second choice, and (3) after his third choice. This vote puts one of the three candidates in office, thus doing away with primary elections and wasted ballots. By this plan each vote practically counts for its full value.

At the last election eight aldermen were voted on in the Bronx. Out of the voters living there five eighths were Democrats, three eighths Republicans, one eighth Socialists. The usual method of voting was used, with the result that the eight aldermen elected were all Democrats, because the majority of the voters were of the party. If proportional representation had been used there would have been elected five Democrats, two Republicans, and one Socialist. This shows that proportional representation is fair to all parties, especially to the minor parties who almost always lose their voice in any election.

Proportional representation is a time saving, money saving, and a fair way of voting. Despite all its advantages, it is little used in America. It has been proposed in several states but it has failed of popular support. Cleveland, Ohio, and many private commercial and patriotic societies are using this method of voting. In foreign countries it is more popular. Ireland

used this plan twice in both her Ulster and Free State elections. It is used in France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, and in some of the British Colonies. The London County Council and seventy other British cities have asked Parliament for power to use it.

In Canada, eleven cities, including Winnipeg and Vancouver, have realized the value of it and are using these methods. In Japan, upon the establishment of its constitution providing for a parliament, the members of that body were chosen from single member districts. But the Japanese were not long in seeing the injustice and defects of such methods and have since substituted for it a plan of proportional representation with very satisfactory results.

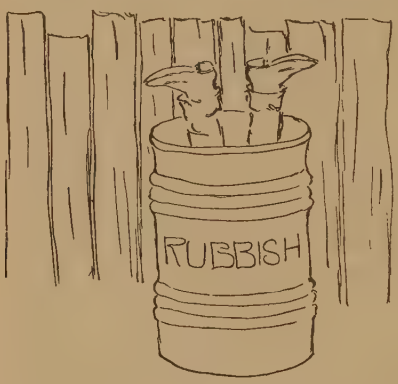
Mr. F. W. M'Cutcheon, counsel of the Charter Revision Committee on November 14, 1922, submitted to the commission a draft for a new charter for New York City. This draft cuts away details of the present charter and gives the Board of Aldermen the power to decide such questions when they arise. Home rule powers are given to the city, which it never before had, and these powers are vested in the Board of Aldermen. This draft suggests that this new powerful Board of Aldermen be elected according to a plan of proportional representation. This election law will have to be amended, but the draft for the amendment is not ready. The Hare System, which is the ideal, might be used by the Charter Commission.

The Counsel's recommendation for this draft states that all parties will have their share and that the local minority be given its voice in matters to which its great size entitles it. It is going to be a problem for all voters of New York City to decide whether or not proportional representation shall be supported. A real representative body is a very rare thing in America, but it is guaranteed by the use of proportional representation. When we further consider that the system has been successfully and satisfactorily used for many years in countries where the average amount of literacy and intelligence is surely

not greater than in the United States, when we read the indorsement of its utility and soundness by leading statesmen and students of government the world round, and when we know that several American cities have found it easy in operation and desirable in results, we need not hesitate to include it in our progressive city charters.

What the Citizen Owes to the Government

As a citizen of the United States one has many rights. What is the meaning of the word citizen? A citizen is one who has the rights and privileges of the inhabitants of a state or nation. This definition should mean much to each of us. When we take into consideration all the rights that are allowed us, we realize what the United States is doing for us. Policemen, sheriffs, and constables are employed at public expense to secure the citizen from harm. In return for all the government does for us, each should see that he does his duty toward the country that allows him to live where he pleases and earn a living for his family.



For Bad Citizens.

Every American citizen should support the government to the best of his ability in consideration of the services rendered to him in preserving the peace and safety of his community and controlling the industrial and educational welfare of his people. We should pay our taxes willingly, for the receipts are used to enable the government to perform services for the citizens. There are some people who try to dodge their income tax which rightly belongs to the United States Government. Any person who tries to dodge his income tax is a very unworthy citizen for he not only deprives children of their edu-

cation but also fails to give support to other government services.

The citizen should also render his personal service, and try to keep his city beautiful. The Merchants' Association of New York has given its services and appointed "Block Captains" to see that the community is kept free of litter. These block captains send in a report each month about the conditions of their streets and the Merchants' Association reports any serious condition, broken sidewalks or sewers, to the proper department. We can coöperate by seeing that:

1. Garbage cans are covered so that no diseases may spread.
2. Some of us become block captains.
3. Dead animals that happen to be lying in the streets are reported.
4. Rubbish, litter, paper, fruit, skins, or waste of any kind is not thrown upon sidewalks or into streets.
5. Nothing except dust is swept from the sidewalks into the streets.
6. Handbills or circulars are not distributed upon the streets.
7. Cans or bundles are not placed on the curb line.
8. Ash cans are not filled too high.
9. Fires are not lighted in the streets.

We can coöperate in the school by:

1. Not chalking up the building or school property.
2. Not speaking in loud voices during lunch time.
3. Keeping the rooms tidy.
4. Not disturbing the rest of the class.

Every inhabitant of any state, city, or country should become a citizen. Every citizen should go to the polls on election day and vote for the men who he knows will make good officials. It should always be remembered that good citizens who do their duty help a government to prosper.

CHAPTER XIX

EDUCATION FOR ALL

BY

Washington Irving High School

Our system of free education did not, as did Minerva, spring into being fully equipped. It has been the process of development, like the growth of a plant from the obscurity of a hidden seed. The system existed first as an idea in the minds of our forefathers. Those minds, we find the more we study them, were seed-fields from which many winged thoughts escaped to lodge in fertile soil and bring forth crops after their kind. This special seed was a particularly good kind, and in the new, untried soil of America it produced an excellent crop. No thoughts were ever more fruitful in the whole political history of mankind than those of the founders of our nation. This we recognize even while admitting that their expression does seem to us at times somewhat quaint and formal.

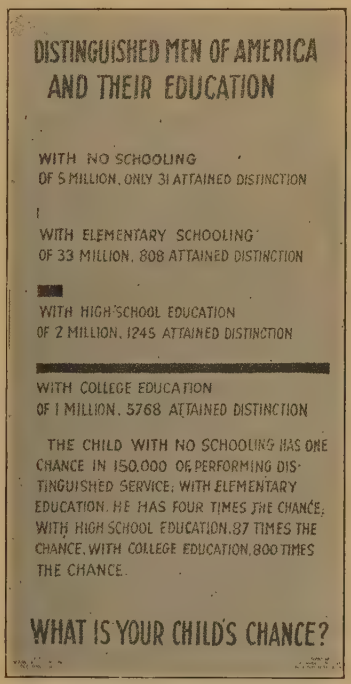
Early American Principles

"Promote, then as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." With these words George Washington linked for the first time the two great ideas, popular government and popular education. From that day education has been considered an essential of the democratic form of government. Every generation has repeated this truth in some form.

Thomas Jefferson expressed the same idea in somewhat simpler words than Washington. "Democratic government *must* diffuse education to protect itself." Adams, Madison,

and Monroe in the early days, Abraham Lincoln and Woodrow Wilson in later times, have all repeated that the future of our country depends on the education of its citizens.

Not only has this thought been emphasized by our leaders but it has been put into practice by the common run of men. We find it "crystallized" in our laws. In most states children are compelled to attend school for a certain time, whether they want to or not. But compulsory attendance is not generally regarded as a hardship. Men have shown themselves ready to make almost any sacrifice to gain an education for themselves or to provide one for their children. So high has been the value that Americans have always set upon it as a safeguard to government, and as a personal possession.

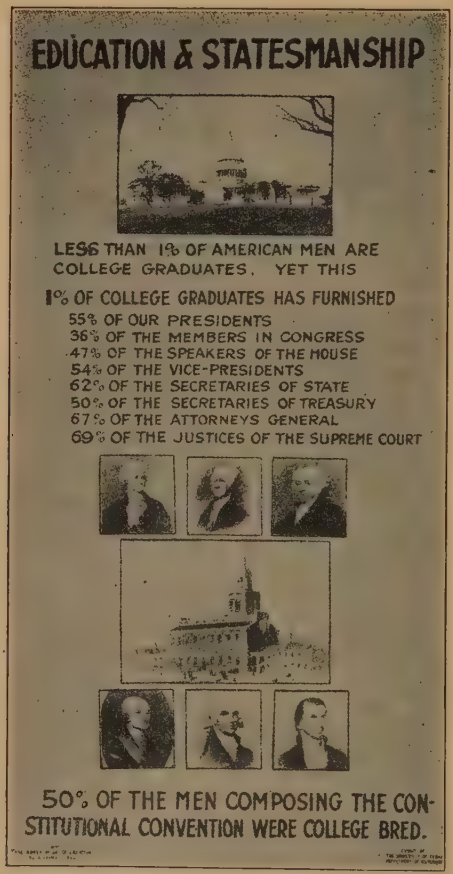

DISTINGUISHED MEN OF AMERICA AND THEIR EDUCATION
WITH NO SCHOOLING OF 5 MILLION, ONLY 31 ATTAINED DISTINCTION
WITH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLING OF 33 MILLION, 808 ATTAINED DISTINCTION
WITH HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION OF 2 MILLION, 1245 ATTAINED DISTINCTION
WITH COLLEGE EDUCATION OF 1 MILLION, 5768 ATTAINED DISTINCTION
THE CHILD WITH NO SCHOOLING HAS ONE CHANCE IN 150,000 OF PERFORMING DISTINGUISHED SERVICE; WITH ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, HE HAS FOUR TIMES THE CHANCE; WITH HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION, 37 TIMES THE CHANCE; WITH COLLEGE EDUCATION, 800 TIMES THE CHANCE.
WHAT IS YOUR CHILD'S CHANCE?

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Modern Educational Ideas

More and more of late years a new direction has been given to the educational ideals of the great forefathers, that of the pupil's responsibility in the matter of education. We have heard, heretofore, much of the duty of the state to educate its citizens. Now we are beginning to hear of the duty of the pupil to make some return to the state. Theodore Roosevelt put it forcibly in these words: "Each one of us obtains in his schooling, something which not he but the community has paid for. He must return it to the community in full, in the shape

of good citizenship." It is a fine thing for us thus to recognize that we owe something to the public; it is a fine thing for us to learn that real manhood meets its obligations.


EDUCATION & STATESMANSHIP
LESS THAN 1% OF AMERICAN MEN ARE COLLEGE GRADUATES. YET THIS
1% OF COLLEGE GRADUATES HAS FURNISHED
55% OF OUR PRESIDENTS
36% OF THE MEMBERS IN CONGRESS
47% OF THE SPEAKERS OF THE HOUSE
54% OF THE VICE-PRESIDENTS
62% OF THE SECRETARIES OF STATE
50% OF THE SECRETARIES OF TREASURY
67% OF THE ATTORNEYS GENERAL
69% OF THE JUSTICES OF THE SUPREME COURT
50% OF THE MEN COMPOSING THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION WERE COLLEGE BRED.

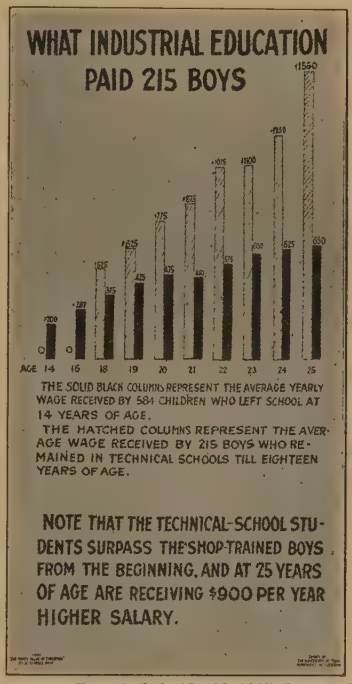
From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

It has always been agreed that education is necessary to produce good citizenship, but it is only recently that we have begun to realize that, as one of the superintendents has said, good citizenship is not a mere by-product of general education in literature, history, arts, and sciences. This realization has led those interested in the young to question what kind of education does actually produce the best citizenship.

The study of this problem has brought two results: First, we are beginning to train the pupil for vocational life. Not long ago, if a boy could not master Latin and Greek, nothing remained for him but to leave school. Now, the school meets the boy and adapts its training to his needs.

A poor classical student may prove a good mechanic; a poor mathematician, a good homemaker. The state is better served by training the child in those departments of knowledge and industry for which he is best fitted.

A second characteristic of modern education is the emphasis that it places on training in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship as a science in itself. Woodrow Wilson has said: "The people must be schooled in the ideas on which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend." Boys and girls are taught to think and reason on civic problems for themselves, to know the needs of their country, and how best to serve them; to know its dangers and how to avert them.

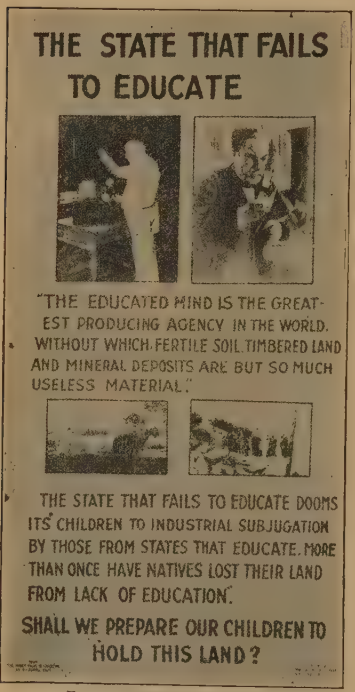

WHAT INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION PAID 215 BOYS
$1550
$1350
$1200
$1075
$925
$825
$725
$625
$525
$425
$325
$225
$125
$0
AGE 14 16 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25
THE SOLID BLACK COLUMNS REPRESENT THE AVERAGE YEARLY WAGE RECEIVED BY 584 CHILDREN WHO LEFT SCHOOL AT 14 YEARS OF AGE.
THE HATCHED COLUMNS REPRESENT THE AVERAGE WAGE RECEIVED BY 215 BOYS WHO REMAINED IN TECHNICAL SCHOOLS TILL EIGHTEEN YEARS OF AGE.
NOTE THAT THE TECHNICAL-SCHOOL STUDENTS SURPASS THE SHOP-TRAINED BOYS FROM THE BEGINNING, AND AT 25 YEARS OF AGE ARE RECEIVING $900 PER YEAR HIGHER SALARY.

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

History of Education in the City of New York

It would be interesting to follow the steps by which the progress of education in New York has advanced. In the days when the city was called New Amsterdam, the state took a definite interest in training her children. In 1638 a school was formed, the first teacher of which was Adam Roelentsen. The tuition was free to those who were too poor to pay. This distinction existed for many years; in fact, until 1787. Even after the English took possession of New York, the schools remained to some extent parochial. Dutch was soon dropped, but Latin, mathematics, and Greek were continued. In 1754 Kings College, now

Columbia, was founded. From time to time public spirited individuals have furthered the progress of education. De Witt Clinton, once Mayor of the city and Governor of the state, is one among many who should be remembered for his services in improving educational opportunities. Thus we see that the educational ideal has been held constantly before the public from the beginning of our history as a nation.


THE STATE THAT FAILS TO EDUCATE
"THE EDUCATED MIND IS THE GREATEST PRODUCING AGENCY IN THE WORLD. WITHOUT WHICH FERTILE SOIL TIMBERED LAND AND MINERAL DEPOSITS ARE BUT SO MUCH USELESS MATERIAL."
THE STATE THAT FAILS TO EDUCATE DOOMS ITS CHILDREN TO INDUSTRIAL SUBJUGATION BY THOSE FROM STATES THAT EDUCATE. MORE THAN ONCE HAVE NATIVES LOST THEIR LAND FROM LACK OF EDUCATION.
SHALL WE PREPARE OUR CHILDREN TO HOLD THIS LAND?

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Kinds of Schools

Character the Aim in Education

Was ever a Midas as rich as he who gets a good education? His is the touch that turns all the common experiences of life into the gold of incorruptible character; for the final aim of education is the building of character. The state knows this and it is the recognition of this truth that has led our city to provide so many schools. Every individual need is met, every taste gratified. Whatever hidden talent one may have must surely be brought to light; whatever leaning toward whatever branch of knowledge must be satisfied in the course of one's common progress through the free public schools.

The Kindergarten

Some one has said, "In a democracy the very life of the state is dependent upon the intelligence of the inhabitants." Accordingly, we take the little one from his home into the kindergarten, and teach him the early lessons of self-control. He

learns to use his fingers in working out little problems of weaving, making chains, and stringing beads. He learns how to play amicably with others, to share his pleasures with his mates, to sing, to dance, to follow directions.

The Elementary School

He then enters the elementary school and usually has eight years of drill in the fundamentals of learning: reading, writing, geography, grammar, arithmetic, and history, or he may at the end of the sixth grade enter a junior high school, which will give him the equivalent of the seventh and eighth grades of his elementary school and the first year of a four years' high school course.

Various Types of High School

After this the regular high school is open to the pupil who is ambitious and has successfully finished his elementary course. In the public system of New York City alone there are thirty-five high schools. There are high schools of the traditional academic kind; there are manual training high schools; there are trade schools for those who wish to learn some special trade as a final step in their education; technical schools for those interested in the branches of learning that relate to the mechanical arts; art schools for those with special talent for seeing and transcribing the beautiful or the unusual; training schools for those who wish to teach; coöperative and vocational and textile schools.

There are also special schools for the handicapped, — the blind, the deaf, the crippled, the mentally defective, the tubercular, — which give such training as will help these less fortunate children to meet their life problems. Here they are taught trades that they may not be a public charge, and are given the power to read and entertain themselves and thus enrich their lives.

There are vacation schools for those who wish to advance faster than the regular courses permit, and for those who wish to make up failures through loss of time or lack of effort. After eight weeks of attendance and satisfactory effort, these schools give a certificate that admits the holder to the next higher grade

of work. The child who has neglected his own interests is not neglected by the state but is sent to a truant school. There are continuation schools for those who must work, nautical schools for those with a liking for the sea, and even the "Tombs" school for those who have broken our laws. For the ambitious pupil who must work during the day, the evening school offers the same opportunity as the day school. In the night schools much time is given to the Americanization of foreigners. The time

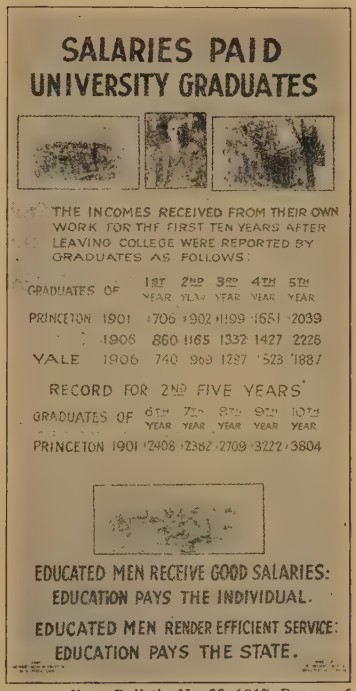
THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.
Where a higher education may be had free.

and money spent on these schools has been put into a mighty cause, and the result will be the raising of our standard of living and the making of better citizens.

Higher Institutions

Free education does not stop with the high school. The College of the City of New York and Hunter College are both a continuation of the city school system and open to its graduates. Both offer four years of college instruction with varied courses to meet the varied needs.

There are many other institutions and educational societies of a public nature: The People's Institute, the City History Club, the League for Political Education, the Woman's Political League, the Juvenile Citizen's League, the Educational Alliance, and others too numerous to mention in a limited list.


SALARIES PAID
UNIVERSITY GRADUATES
THE INCOMES RECEIVED FROM THEIR OWN WORK FOR THE FIRST TEN YEARS AFTER LEAVING COLLEGE WERE REPORTED BY GRADUATES AS FOLLOWS:
GRADUATES OF 1ST YEAR 2ND YEAR 3RD YEAR 4TH YEAR 5TH YEAR
PRINCETON 1901 $706 $902 $1199 $1651 $2039
1906 860 1165 1332 1427 2226
YALE 1906 740 963 1287 1523 1887
RECORD FOR 2ND FIVE YEARS
GRADUATES OF 6TH YEAR 7TH YEAR 8TH YEAR 9TH YEAR 10TH YEAR
PRINCETON 1901 $2408 $2382 $2709 $3272 $3804
EDUCATED MEN RECEIVE GOOD SALARIES:
EDUCATION PAYS THE INDIVIDUAL.
EDUCATED MEN RENDER EFFICIENT SERVICE:
EDUCATION PAYS THE STATE.

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

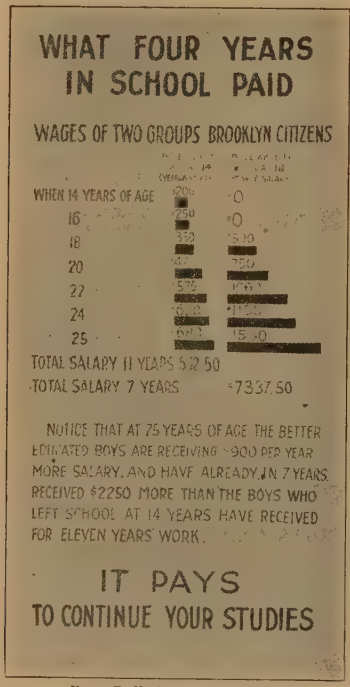
Private schools

Private schools have a distinct place of their own. They are in many cases laboratories for important educational experiments. Another development of private educational enterprise is the large foundations. The Carnegie and Rockefeller foundations do research work that could not be carried on by the government without too great demands upon the public money; yet the public benefit at times as a result of their work. The private schools offer an excellent field for experimental work that it would be unwise for schools, supported by public funds, to attempt. Yet the supervisors of public instruction make use of such experiments as are found adaptable to their own needs. The project-method, the Dalton plan, the play school idea, the junior high school, intelligence tests, have all been developed in the private schools and later transplanted into the public schools.

Universities

It would seem that the New York opportunities were largely overlooked if we did not mention the universities which, though

in the main not free, are yet so available and so numerous that they form almost a part of the scheme of education in the city. Columbia University, founded as King's College, and combining Columbia College, Teachers College, and Barnard College, offers courses in law, science, pedagogy, philosophy, political science, and medicine. Many of these courses are offered, also, at the New York University, which conducts some of its schools at University Heights and others in the building at Washington Square. There are also the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, Pratt Institute, the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, the New York School of Design, and the New York School of Art, besides many excellent sectarian and parochial schools scattered throughout the city.


WHAT FOUR YEARS IN SCHOOL PAID
WAGES OF TWO GROUPS BROOKLYN CITIZENS
WHEN 14 YEARS OF AGE
16
18
20
22
24
25
TOTAL SALARY 11 YEARS $12 50
TOTAL SALARY 7 YEARS $7337.50
NOTICE THAT AT 25 YEARS OF AGE THE BETTER EDUCATED BOYS ARE RECEIVING $900 PER YEAR MORE SALARY. AND HAVE ALREADY IN 7 YEARS RECEIVED $2250 MORE THAN THE BOYS WHO LEFT SCHOOL AT 14 YEARS HAVE RECEIVED FOR ELEVEN YEARS WORK.
IT PAYS TO CONTINUE YOUR STUDIES

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

The Pioneers' Love of Education

Various Courses of Study

Some of the best things that have ever been said about education were expressed by the founders of our nation. And they believed in all their assertions and acted accordingly. However small the community, however handicapped by poverty and grinding care, the "little red schoolhouse" found a place in its midst. And though their clothing was homespun and their food coarse, their minds were given a chance to develop. It was a matter of pride with them that they could "read and write

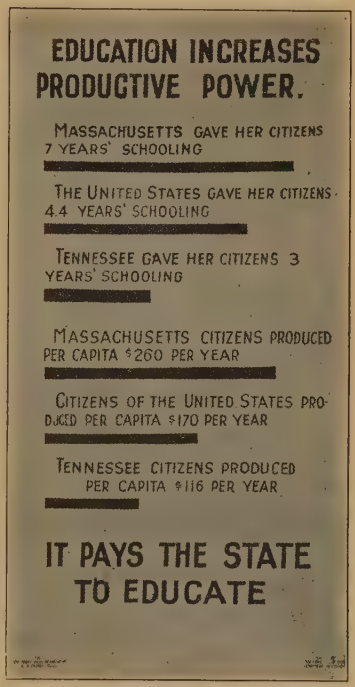
and cipher" and that the opportunity to gain these accomplishments was free.

That love of education and faith in it still lives in their descendants, but what would those pioneers say if they could compare the courses that their descendants offer free, with the "Three R's" which they considered a liberal education?

Different Courses

Even in some of the elementary schools in the higher classes, prevocational dressmaking, domestic science, and manual training courses are offered, in addition to the regular subjects of the grades.

One of the principal courses in the high schools is the academic. This prepares a student for college or for the study of any profession he may choose. Some of the subjects taught are history, English, foreign languages, science, mathematics, music, drawing, elocution, physical training. This course gives a good general training and lays a foundation for further study.


EDUCATION INCREASES PRODUCTIVE POWER.
MASSACHUSETTS GAVE HER CITIZENS 7 YEARS' SCHOOLING
THE UNITED STATES GAVE HER CITIZENS 4.4 YEARS' SCHOOLING
TENNESSEE GAVE HER CITIZENS 3 YEARS' SCHOOLING
MASSACHUSETTS CITIZENS PRODUCED PER CAPITA $260 PER YEAR
CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES PRODUCED PER CAPITA $170 PER YEAR
TENNESSEE CITIZENS PRODUCED PER CAPITA $116 PER YEAR
IT PAYS THE STATE TO EDUCATE

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

The commercial or secretarial course trains for the business world. It emphasizes such subjects as stenography, typewriting, and accounting. At various schools special courses are given in dressmaking, costume designing, and embroidery, which either fit students as home or trade workers, or develop self-reliance and efficiency. Other courses are given in art, both industrial and non-industrial. They include in their

offers designing, painting, illustrating, and the various phases of commercial, as well as cultural, art. Private instruction in any of these branches is so expensive that many with a natural talent would be prohibited from developing their gift were they not, as in the New York high schools, offered these courses free.

Nor are these all. There are vocational homemaking courses which offer special opportunities for the study of domestic

VOCATIONAL TRAINING. *Photo by Brown Bros.*

science and home problems, such as sanitation, catering, cooking, home decorating; and which prepare for executive positions in homes, hotels, canteens, hospitals, and lunch rooms. There are courses in textiles and millinery. There are manual training and technical courses in which the boys are given preparatory training for advanced work in civil, mechanical, and electrical engineering, and for the trades. All these, in the high schools.

For those who have graduated from the high schools there is still further provision. As has already been pointed out, Hunter College and the College of the City of New York are open to them. The work done in these institutions is accepted by all universities as a basis for their special courses. The New York, the Maxwell, and the Jamaica Training Schools for Teachers accept the graduates of the high schools and, after three years in any of these institutions, the students are eligible for positions as teachers in the elementary schools.

If attendance is any sign, the citizens of New York are not unappreciative of their opportunities. In February, 1925, 964,136 pupils were registered in the New York schools.

After-School Activities

Educational opportunities do not end with the ringing of the dismissal bell. After a day of study the student looks forward with keen interest to some club or social activity that will occupy him for an hour or two.

Clubs

There are music clubs which study subjects related to the course; some, the lives of composers; others, harmony; still others meet in glee clubs and in orchestras, where they get a chance to play the instruments they are studying outside of school. Thus they get and give pleasure. There are art clubs where pupils compete with one another in working out designs for posters, or advertising, or where they get a deeper insight into the history of art; these are especially interesting to boys and girls with artistic gifts.

Pupils learning a language have the chance of belonging to clubs where they speak only the language they are studying, or practice for public entertainments to be given in that language; where they can learn something of the life, home, and customs of those who are native to that tongue, and other interesting facts that the short period of class study does not admit of. History and literature clubs are very common in our schools. In these clubs pupils study more in detail the subjects they are interested in, visit places of local fame, get acquainted with new authors, and discuss them and their work with others of similar taste.

There are mathematics clubs for those with a liking for the exact sciences; debating clubs for the controversial; dramatic clubs for those whose talent runs in dramatic or elocutionary expression; economics and civics clubs for the study of social problems; natural science clubs for those who love the "out-of-doors" and find an interest in the processes of life or in things of a mechanical nature; leaders' clubs for those especially proficient in physical training; corrective classes for those imperfectly developed in body; school papers and magazines for those with a literary gift or the newspaper instinct. No field is barred. There are innumerable chances for advancement in any subject one has difficulty with or in which one wishes to work up an interest.

Sports

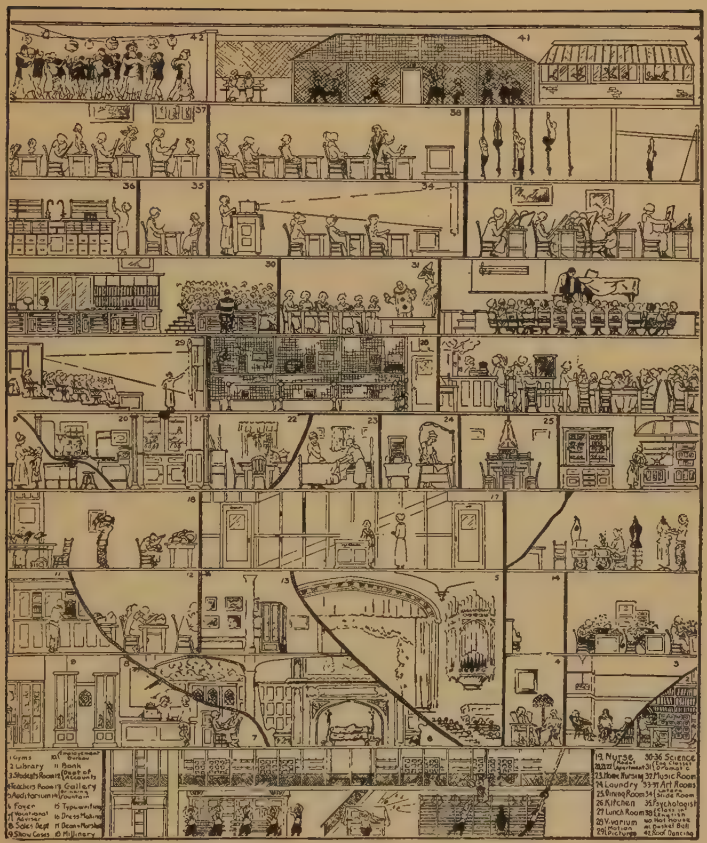
Good sportsmanship is one of the ideals cherished by all Americans, and our city is doing much to bring out the spirit of fair play in her youthful citizens. There is no better way to develop this spirit than by the comradeship and healthful rivalry that result from the playing of games where the give and take are equal, and the young learn to treat the "other fellow" as they like to be treated. Basket-ball, baseball, football, race-track, swimming, and hockey teams are all found in our schools. These sports teach pupils to work in harmony toward a desired end, to sacrifice the individual to the group, and to give one another a square deal.

School Libraries

The libraries connected with the schools are an important means of education as well as entertainment. In the files all sorts of material can be found on almost any subject; the first-class periodicals and magazines are kept there as well as books. An hour a day in the library is a liberal education in itself.

General Organizations

Most high schools of the present day have some form of student government, through which the pupils are schooled in campaigning, organizing, voting, conducting business meetings, managing conferences, and in many other ways preparing for civic duties. They learn to select the best executive material from a list of candidates and to meet responsibility through the



CROSS-SECTION OF WASHINGTON IRVING HIGH SCHOOL.

A cross-section of a typical cosmopolitan high school in the heart of the city. Here are shown diagrammatically the various educational and recreational activities that are carried on throughout the building from eight o'clock in the morning until ten o'clock at night. Here indeed is a public building which pays rich dividends on the investment of public funds. The Washington Irving High School is situated at 40 Irving Place, Manhattan.

carrying out of laws they have helped to make, and through deciding what laws are necessary.

Another method of instruction is that gained through competition. This is one of the best ways of rousing interest in work. Mathematics contests and spelling bees, debates and athletic meets, between different schools or different classes in the same school, have a natural and tonic effect upon the work. By such means of education outside school hours the city helps to improve its citizenship. This is not the least important part of its mammoth plan, which is often promoted by outside agencies interested in the education of our young people, such as the Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution, economic societies, good road organizations, geographical societies, and many more.

Educational Opportunities outside of School

Education is a story without an end. It goes on and on. Aside from the training one receives in school there are many outside opportunities not directly connected with the schools but having a developing value not less important. We have learned that the right kind of play is itself a part of an all-round education, and that, if we train the mind without the body, we are neglecting the foundation of all health and sanity.

To encourage this form of education, New York has a system of playgrounds, recreation centers, and parks. These places are meant especially for growing children, who may here enjoy wholesome games free from the menace of the streets. Within the system of the five boroughs there are more than a hundred parks, most of them offering public playgrounds. Among the most available of these are Central Park in Manhattan, Bronx Park and Van Cortlandt Park in The Bronx, and Prospect Park in Brooklyn. Within the parks are often found zoölogical and botanical gardens and other means of instruction and entertainment.

American cities are beginning to see the value of public baths and swimming pools. New York maintains floating baths in the rivers and bays during the summer, and permanent baths

equal to any in the world, during the entire year. To be educated in health and cleanliness is more than to be educated in history and geography.

Libraries

The public libraries are a valuable ally to the public schools. They are free educational institutions for the use of the people, and the people make use of them. Have you ever heard your little sister or brother repeat the wonders of the story hour?

Suits of Armor in the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

Have you ever found them deep in the mysteries of their books in their own special reading room? If you have, you know what new worlds have stood waiting for their discovery at the turning of the pages. Here have swung open the doors of Romance and Arthur and his Knights have come riding forth on holy quest; here dragons have yielded to the touch of magic swords, and conquering banners floated high from castle towers; here the secrets of the sea and of the grave have yielded to wan-

dering heroes; here on every hilltop, temples have gleamed white against the blue, and every common bush has concealed a god.

Lectures, Concerts, and Museums

Concerts and free public lectures furnish an opportunity to escape from the work-a-day world into realms of mind and creative currents of thought. Places of historical interest such as the homes of famous men, monuments, Wall Street, memorials of Revolutionary times and the later wars, help to make history vivid. The Aquarium enables us to learn the life secrets of the tribes that inhabit the waters. The museums give those interested in art, history, and natural history a chance to find both information and inspiration in their chosen field. Other forces for training in citizenship are the scout movement, the camp-fire societies, and home-nursing centers, and the wide-spread university-extension movement, each with an influence that cannot be measured.

Truly education, the queen of the kingdom of success, has built herself here a spacious palace. She has adorned it and polished it and set open its doors. Who among those that enter will be so base as to deface or defile this temple dedicated to the ideals of a great people?

State Control

If a boy of thirteen should move from North Carolina to New York he might be surprised to learn that the law required him to attend school thirty-six weeks in the year instead of sixteen weeks. If a Massachusetts high school pupil were to be transferred to a New York high school, he would be equally surprised to find that the passing of Regents' examinations is necessary for graduation. These illustrations show that although we have national ideals in education, the states differ in their respective laws governing compulsory attendance at school, and requirements for graduation. Many of the states of the union have laws much less strict than ours. The law of New York State is one of the best. Perhaps some day we can make it the very best.

The reason for the difference in state systems is found when we consult the early history of our nation. The states, when the

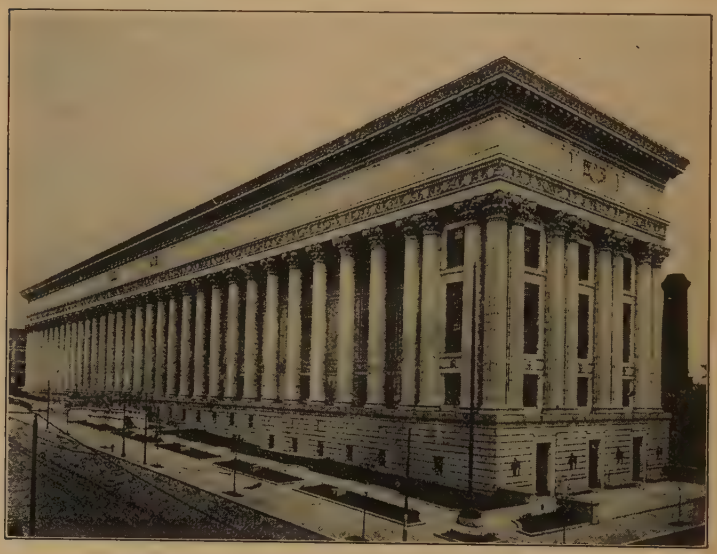
union was formed, were jealous of federal interference with existing institutions, and, as we have seen, one of the numerous matters left to their control was the subject of education. From the earliest days then, the state and not the federal government has regulated and supervised the schools within its boundaries. The states soon found, however, that the communities were uneven in their support of local schools; that while some towns were forward in putting up buildings and obtaining teachers, others, lacking funds were backward in these things. It became necessary for the state to have a power over citizens to make them provide the funds, as well as a power to make the children attend school.

In 1849 the people of the State of New York voted "to make the property of the state educate the children of the State," and by 1867 all such schools were made free to pupils. With its free schools, New York found it possible to compel attendance at school of children between the ages of seven and fourteen. Under the compulsory attendance law these children cannot be employed during the school term from October 1 to June 1. A boy or girl of fourteen may leave school provided an employment certificate is obtained. Thus the state controls the education and employment of the younger members of the community.

It also regulates the licensing of teachers in order that all persons who teach in public schools shall reach certain standards of character and ability. It prescribes the teaching of certain subjects in addition to the common school branches; that is, it requires that in all schools, public and private, instruction be given in physical training, in the humane treatment of animals, and in patriotism and citizenship. Furthermore, the state has the power to compel a city, town, or village to provide proper school facilities if a community neglects this duty.

Our educational authority in the State of New York is the State Education Department known as the University of the State of New York, governed by twelve regents, one for each judicial district, who are elected by the Legislature. These re-

gents make regulations for examining and licensing those who wish to follow certain professions and occupations that affect the life and safety of the citizens of the state. For instance, a physician or a dentist must pass the regents' examination in his subject before he may practice in the State of New York. Examinations are also held for nurses, teachers, veterinarians, and public accountants.



New York State Education Building in Albany.

The regents elect a State Commissioner of Education who has supervision over all the schools of the state. He is the chief executive officer of the State Department. He has the power to remove any school officer from his position for misconduct or failure to attend to his duty. Of course he does not do all the work of supervision himself; he has the help of a staff of assistant commissioners, chiefs of divisions, inspectors, secretaries, clerical helpers, and librarians.

Our State Department has a great many activities or functions that promote special branches of education and furnish service to towns and small communities as well as cities that wish to avail themselves of its large resources. For instance, there is a Division of Visual Instruction, which furnishes slides and lectures on request; and the state has traveling libraries which many schools draw upon for books. It maintains a large library and a fine school for the training of libraries. It has a museum devoted to the *flora* and *fauna* and geological collections peculiar to the state. Then there is a Division of Physical Education, and there are divisions that carry on the important work of making and keeping records, such as the Division of Attendance, and the Division of Statistics. These many divisions as well as the library are housed in the State Education Building in Albany, a beautiful structure completed in 1910.

The maintenance of such a department demands a large sum of money yearly. The manner in which funds are raised is as follows:

The head of each division submits to the commissioner an estimate of what is required to maintain its work in the coming year. The commissioner prepares from these estimates the budget required by the whole department, and submits it to the Committee on Appropriations of the State Legislature. Then that committee determines the amount to be allowed for educational purposes during the ensuing year, subject to the approval of the Governor.

City Administration

Now for the most part the State Education Department permits the City of New York and other communities in the state a great deal of freedom in conducting their local educational programs. The schools of the City of New York are subject to state regulations, but they are also under the active control of the city Board of Education. This Board consists of seven citizens, appointed by the Mayor, and serving without pay. They elect a superintendent of schools and eight associate superintendents, who constitute an executive board charged with

duties of selecting textbooks, appointing teachers, approving courses of study, and generally supervising the work of teachers and pupils in the city system. This work is so great that nine men cannot possibly do it without many helpers such as district superintendents, directors, clerical workers, and other agents.

A very important body, appointed by the Board of Education, is the Board of Examiners, which examines and rates applicants for teaching positions in the city's schools, and maintains an elegible list from which all teachers are appointed under its rules. Like the State Department, the city has its Bureau of Attendance, its Bureau of Visual Instruction and Lectures, its Bureau of Records and Statistics, its Bureau of Supplies, and its Bureau of Buildings.

To provide for the education of over 900,000 pupils every year, is a great task for both educators and taxpayers. It naturally costs more each succeeding year because there are more pupils in school each year, requiring additional teachers and supplies. Furthermore, supplies and buildings wear out and must be replaced by others at a greater cost than a few years ago. The Board of Education has to make an estimate of what it will cost to run the schools for the coming year. A detailed statement is prepared by each bureau showing the estimates for salaries, clerical work, supplies, and in fact for every item down to the brooms for sweeping floors.

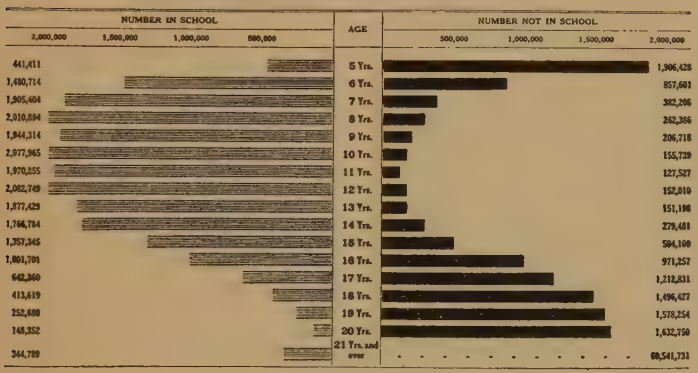
From these estimates the Board of Education prepares a budget which it submits to the city's finance committee, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. For 1925 this budget was over $100,000,000. Large as the sum is, it is not adequate to carry out the approved educational program of the year, and some desirable activities suffered for lack of funds. In a population as varied as that of New York, where there are so many interests, commercial and industrial, there is a necessity for more types of schools than in a simply organized community.

As has already been implied, the United States Government has had little to do with the state and local systems of educa-

tion. The United States Government maintains a Bureau of Education as a part of the Department of the Interior. The head of this Bureau is called the United States Commissioner of Education. The Bureau has no authority over the schools of the country, its function being to issue an annual report on school conditions, and to publish supplementary documents helpful in promoting education. That is, the duties of the bureau are those of research and counsel, and not of executive authority. It employs a number of specialists who on request

Federal Research and Counsel

BOYS AND GIRLS IN SCHOOL AND NOT IN SCHOOL, 1920.

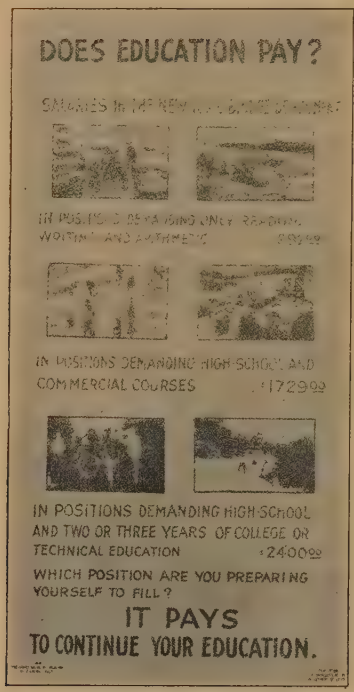


Federal Board for Vocational Information, Washington, D. C.

advise states and localities on such matters as agricultural education in rural schools, problems in schools for negroes, and methods of dealing with adult illiteracy.

There is a growing feeling in this country that a child should not be subject to any disadvantage from the community in which he happens to be born; and that to avoid such disadvantage national grants of money should be made to the states in order to equalize educational opportunities. In this way the rich states through payment of national taxes would help the poorer states where there exists greater need for improved schooling. A bill has been, and is now, before Congress providing for

a Department of Education with its executive officer in the cabinet. The bill provides for national aid for the elimination of illiteracy, and gives to the Bureau of Education some supervisory powers relative to general education. It is unanimously agreed that public education in America needs the moral support of the United States Government; but it is difficult to accomplish this end without taking away power from the states.


DOES EDUCATION PAY?
IN POSITIONS DEMANDING ONLY READING, WRITING AND ARITHMETIC $900.00
IN POSITIONS DEMANDING HIGH SCHOOL AND COMMERCIAL COURSES $1729.00
IN POSITIONS DEMANDING HIGH SCHOOL AND TWO OR THREE YEARS OF COLLEGE OR TECHNICAL EDUCATION $2400.00
WHICH POSITION ARE YOU PREPARING YOURSELF TO FILL?
IT PAYS
TO CONTINUE YOUR EDUCATION.

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

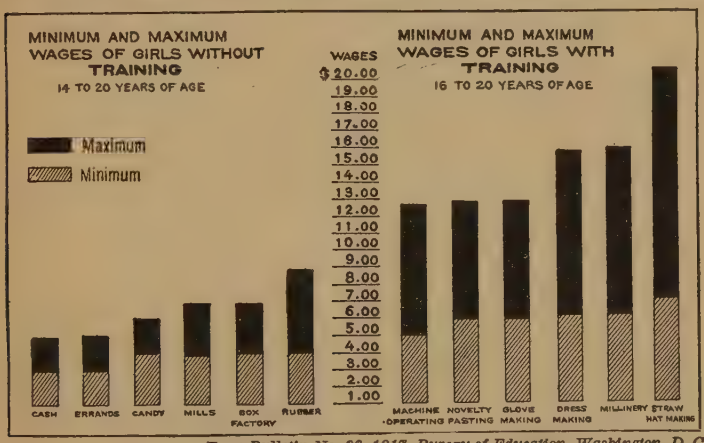
There is, however, one field of education that now receives national aid, and over which the government exercises a measure of control in the various states. This is vocational education, which fits people for profitable employment in gainful occupations. In certain forms of approved vocational education, the United States Government pays one half the support of the school, while the state and local community pay the other half. But the government has been careful not to infringe on the rights of the states, and exercises no direct supervision over local and state schools of vocational education after it has given its approval to the state's plan.

Suggested Changes

Compulsory Attendance

Our great democracy is an unrealized ideal toward which we are continually moving. Education, which was established

by the founders of the nation to promote the general welfare, must respond to the changes in the social and economic life of each succeeding generation. Today, many influences, such as the progress in scientific knowledge, social and economic conditions growing out of the World War, and the great increase in population, are revolutionizing the educational world. At the present time some of the most important bills before the



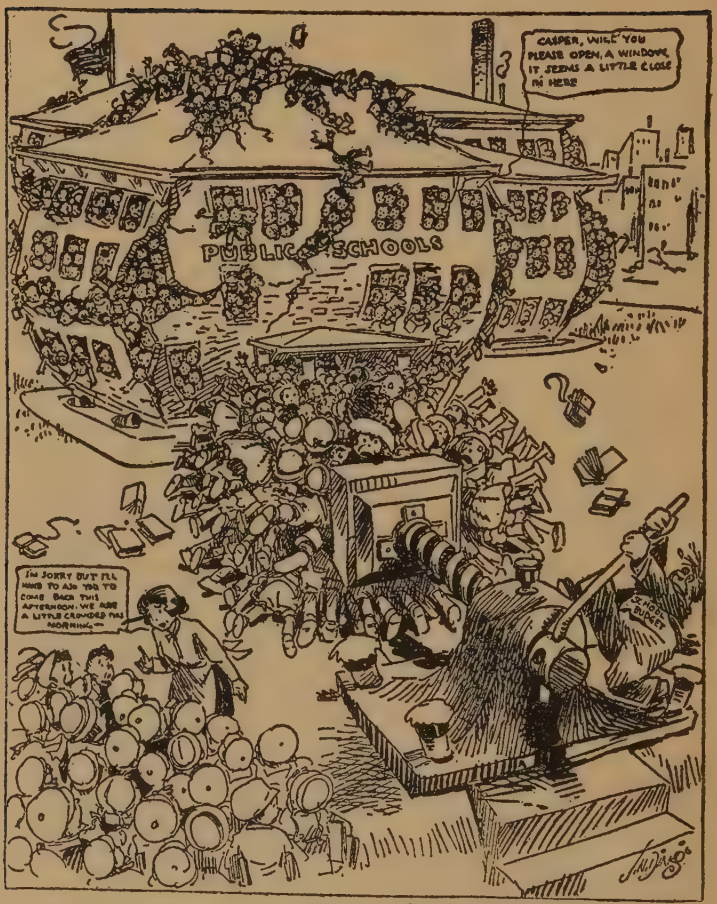
From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

federal and state legislatures are concerned with educational matters.

Financing the Schools

Our great problem at present is that of school finance. Money is the basis of good schools, and because of the large increase in school attendance, together with wider curriculums and the need of better physical facilities, more money is necessary today than ever before. However, statistics show that in New York City the school allowance has not only been kept lower than an increase proportionate to the numbers taught but has been kept lower than the proportionate increase given to other departments. The number of part-time pupils is decreasing and unfit buildings are being replaced by new and beautiful ones.

Another matter at present engaging the attention of our tax-


CASPER, WILL YOU PLEASE OPEN A WINDOW IT SEEMS A LITTLE CLOSE IN HERE
PUBLIC SCHOOL
I'M SORRY BUT I'LL HAVE TO ASK YOU TO COME BACK THIS AFTERNOON. WE ARE A LITTLE CROWDED THIS MORNING
SCHOOL BUILDING

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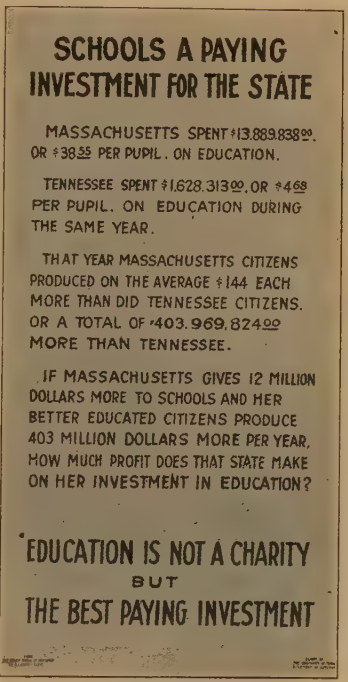
THE MOST EXPENSIVE ECONOMY ANY COMMUNITY CAN INDULGE IN.

payers is the question whether it is better to leave the Board of Estimate in control of our school finances or to give the Board of Education a greater independence in fiscal affairs.

A third important question in the educational field today is that of federal recognition of education. The World War em-

A Federal Department of Education

phasized the defects in our educational system. It is admitted that the education of its citizens is the most important work in which a government can engage. At the present time the promotion of education is scattered among seven executive departments of the government with little or no coördination. For the last five years a bill has been before Congress which includes two proposals: (1) the creation of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's cabinet, and (2) federal aid to encourage the states in the correction of glaring shortcomings.


SCHOOLS A PAYING INVESTMENT FOR THE STATE
MASSACHUSETTS SPENT $13.889.838.00. OR $38.55 PER PUPIL. ON EDUCATION.
TENNESSEE SPENT $1.628.313.00. OR $4.68 PER PUPIL. ON EDUCATION DURING THE SAME YEAR.
THAT YEAR MASSACHUSETTS CITIZENS PRODUCED ON THE AVERAGE $144 EACH MORE THAN DID TENNESSEE CITIZENS. OR A TOTAL OF $403.969.824.00 MORE THAN TENNESSEE.
IF MASSACHUSETTS GIVES 12 MILLION DOLLARS MORE TO SCHOOLS AND HER BETTER EDUCATED CITIZENS PRODUCE 403 MILLION DOLLARS MORE PER YEAR, HOW MUCH PROFIT DOES THAT STATE MAKE ON HER INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION?
EDUCATION IS NOT A CHARITY
BUT
THE BEST PAYING INVESTMENT

From Bulletin No. 22, 1917, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

The opponents of the Towner-Sterling Bill, as it is called, argue that federal aid will result in federal control and lessen the interest and responsibility of local authorities; that it will increase taxes and lead to little but useless red-tape. Those who favor the bill argue that we have had during the last sixty years in many instances federal aid for the establishment of schools, which has not resulted in federal control, and that such problems as vocational education, inadequate rural education, education of the immigrant, and the alarming increase in illiteracy, are national problems and therefore require federal action if they are to be solved. President Harding in his address to Congress said: "I believe in the coöperation of the national authority to stimulate, encourage, and broaden the work of the

local authorities. It is the especial obligation of the federal government to devise means and effectively assist in the education of the newcomer from foreign lands, so that the level of American education may be made the highest that is humanly possible."

It has been said that education is an adjustment to the environment. The city we live in is bound to change, and yearly it will present fresh difficulties of living. Education must keep pace with such problems of city life, and citizens must be taught to think intelligently in solving them. Education must include such matters as the problem of dealing with the housing situation, and the regulation of traffic in the ever-growing city ; the necessity of conserving health under all conditions ; the problem of cultivating tastes for a wise and wholesome use of leisure time.

What of the education of the future? Undoubtedly it will reflect social and industrial environment as accurately as at present. The public conception of the meaning of education has been a changing affair. It may be that the actual needs of child and adult life have not changed, but the public idea of what should be done for both has developed very much. The schools of Colonial times offered little or nothing except the teaching of the three R's. In early times, however, the home, church, farm, and shop as well as the school helped to educate the child.

Nowadays, the schools have to do the work with much less help from other sources and the work itself is much greater because of the new fields in education unknown to the Colonial period. But agencies for better living and better understanding are not to stop in their development. As they move forward, the conception of what is proper and necessary in education will be enlarged. We shall come to see that the purpose of all material progress is to translate it into human wealth : that a nation is truly rich only as its people, young and old, work for individual and community growth towards a perfect citizenship. This attainment will be possible only as every child has the

opportunity to obtain an adequate education, and every adult the purpose to make this education continuous.

What of the education of the future? In a democracy like ours the clamoring need, for the future as for the present, is for leaders. It is for men who will stand taller than their neighbors and who will be gifted with the powers that shape the destinies not only of their fellows but of the entire nation. A

Photo by Brown Bros.

ADULT EDUCATION.

Foreigners being taught the English language.

nation's supply of great men depends largely upon the educational training furnished. That must be broad, deep, and thorough, or the desired stature cannot be reached. "Of the considerable number of persons in each generation, born with the moral and intellectual ability of leaders, a large percentage is lost because of our present inability to find them or to train them rightly when found."

To discover the unfailing method that will develop and inspire these leaders is the work of the future. When we have leaders in sufficient numbers properly to officer our industrial and professional armies, our national prosperity is assured. For, as has been said, a nation is rich in its citizenry, not in material wealth alone. And once our national prosperity is thus established, what is to hinder a nation of trained thinkers from breaking through the bars of a narrow sectionalism and the prejudice fostered by generations of bigotry and suspicion into the broad fields of international good-will and confidence where the poet's vision may yet be realized and "man to man the world o'er may brothers be"?

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